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THE TRADE AND COMMERCIAL SYSTEM OF RUSSIA.

THE attitude assumed by Russia towards Turkey has naturally directed attention, not only to the military and naval resources of the Czar, but to the state of his commercial relations with Great Britain and the rest of the world. Mighty as Russia is, and weak as Turkey may be, it is found that the trade of Russia with Great Britain has long been stationary, while that of Turkey has been rapidly progressive. The declared value of British exports to the two countries is, on the average—

	Turkey.		Russia.
1831-33 ..	£941,192	..	£1,436,606
1849-51 ..	£2,875,174	..	£1,436,883

The former, therefore, increased three-fold in eighteen years, and the latter was stationary. But Russia has a population of upwards of sixty-two millions; and Turkey in Asia and Europe—to which, alone, this return applies—has less than twenty-five millions. The population of the former consume of our goods more than 2s. per head, and of the latter less than 6d. Such facts may cause exultation in Russia, where the old policy of isolating nations from one another still prevails, and savage independence is preferred to social enjoyment; but the nation which consumes little of other people's produce must have little of its own, and stationary imports implies that a nation is standing still. If imports be not increased, exports can only be increased by giving them away, or by emigrants carrying them away; and thus stationary imports implies stationary trade and stationary wealth. The trade of Russia may be extended, it may be thought, in another direction; but, as England has a large trade with almost all the world, and as her trade with other nations increases they prosper, there are grounds for presuming, from the trade with England being stationary, that Russia is not generally prosperous.

In fact we can state, on different authorities, that the total trade of Russia is very small. Mr. McGregor states that seven-twelfths of the exports of Russia come to England, and it appears that five-sixths of them come to the West of Europe. The trade of Russia is classed under four heads—that with the West of Europe, that with Asia (Bockhara, Persia, China, &c.), and that with Poland and Finland. The two latter are in fact provinces of Russia, but, having been recently acquired, they are not incorporated in the general trade system. Excluding them, the rest of the empire is under one common and general system, which is attended with the great advantage of having no other custom-houses than those on the frontiers; and in all the large space between them, as

in our country, goods may be freely and untolled transmitted from place to place. Passing unnoticed the trade with Finland and Poland, which is trifling, the whole of the trade of Russia with Asia amounted on the average of the three years 1846-48, to—imports, 14,201,641 silver roubles; and exports, 9,890,045. The silver rouble is worth 3s. 2d.; and thus the total annual value of all the imports and exports to Asia, or of the whole trade, is something more than £3,800,000. This is about the half of one month's exports alone from our country. Nor is the Asiatic trade of Russia increasing. The total amount of the imports and exports in 1844, with Asia, was 25,000,000 roubles; and, in 1848, 22,000,000. Now, coming to the total trade of Russia, exclusive of specie, but including the Asiatic trade, its amount was in silver roubles, in—

	Imports.		Exports.
1842 ..	84,593,391	..	85,338,206
1848 ..	90,778,278	..	88,336,847

The variations from year to year, between 1842 and 1848, show that this trade is irregularly and only slightly progressive, while its total amount is comparatively trifling. Turned into English

pounds sterling, the total annual value of the imports and exports together may be roughly stated at £27,000,000, or about one-third of the amount of our exports alone. In other words the 62,500,000 Russians have about one-sixth as much traffic as the 28,000,000 English. The trade of Russia, therefore, is comparatively small, and is not rapidly increasing.

This is more extraordinary, because gold was discovered in Russia about 1819; and ever since a large and continually increasing supply of the precious metal has been obtained. In 1847 the produce was 1741 *pouids*, valued at £3,800,000—a small sum compared to the vast produce of California and Australia, but large compared to the previous produce of the whole world, which was estimated at less than £2,000,000 yearly. It appears by the returns of the imports and exports of specie, that the gold produced in Russia has done little more than supply its own wants, for in the six years 1844-1848 the imports of the precious metals were nearly as large as the exports. This may serve to show what an immense quantity of gold is yet really required to carry on the commerce of other and more prosperous nations, and how vain are the fears of those who

anticipate unheard-of disasters from the Californian and Australian discoveries. According, however, to all general rules, the discovery of gold should have given a great impulse to the enterprise and trade of Russia. In fact, it appears in the first instance to have had considerable effect, for the trade of Russia during the life of the Emperor Alexander was doubled; but her paralysing commercial system gradually produced its wonted effects, and trade almost ceased to be progressive. The advent of peace, and the gold discoveries, were favourable to the trade of Russia, which, under the Emperor Nicholas, has not gone on increasing as under the Emperor Alexander.

The Government of Russia has for almost two centuries continually and successively extended its territories; but the resources of the people have not increased in a corresponding proportion. At the accession of Peter the Great, in 1689, his subjects were about 15,000,000; his present successor reigns over 62,500,000. But that increase—contrary to the more astonishing increase in the United States, where the people have multiplied, and where conquests of territory have only been made from the unreclaimed wilderness—has chiefly resulted from the Government of Russia acquiring other territory previously reclaimed, and from reducing nations already in existence under its dominion. The Emperor has extended his sway; but civilisation has not accompanied his footsteps. The growth of his power is not from within, but accretions from without. In truth, it is less a growth than an aggregation. Turning to the system by



REDSCHID PACHA, THE TURKISH MINISTER OF FOREIGN AFFAIRS.—FROM A SKETCH BY SIR DAVID WILKIE, R.A..—(SEE NEXT PAGE.)

which the trade of Russia is regulated, it is the pride of the Imperial Government to found and encourage manufactures. It advances its funds for this purpose; it invites manufacturers from abroad, and thus the Government becomes itself a manufacturer, and it makes laws to reward its own industry with a good market and high prices. A rigid system of prohibitions—changed in 1839 into prohibitory duties, so high as in most cases to be equivalent to prohibitions—secure for the Imperial manufacturer, and for all the manufactures established under the Imperial patronage, a perfect and a close monopoly. Some few things are admitted at comparatively low duties—such as antimony, cotton, bristles, sheeps' wool, &c., which Russia neither produces in sufficient quantities, nor can make; but others, such as pocket-handkerchiefs, are subject to a duty of 1 rouble 80 copecks the pound avardupois—if of cambric, they pay 5 roubles. Earthenware pays 4 roubles per pound; and, if it have a border, 10. These are only specimens of a tariff extending over all kinds of commodities, and enacted for the purpose of preventing competition from abroad. The State therefore forbids trade. But, as the market for one commodity is always some other commodity—money being only the instrument of exchange—all trade is really barter; and to impede the introduction or production of other commodities than those of the manufacturer is really to deprive him of his legitimate encouragement and reward. The system intended to promote the prosperity of Russia stifles it at its birth. It is well meant, but so were all the similar systems by which the Governments of Europe, including our own, endeavoured, for a long period to bring the balance of trade on their side, and to foster and promote the industry and wealth of their own subjects. Then it was a general opinion that trade was akin to cheating, and only enriched one man or one nation by impoverishing another. We are, happily, better informed; we know that mutual exchange economises labour, and is a mutual benefit. It increases the wealth of all; and even Russia is not a complete exception to the rule, that the extension of our trade, in consequence of the abolition of restrictions increasing our demands, and encouraging the cultivation of corn and other things, has increased the wealth of all the nations we trade with.

For us, and for all the civilised world, the uncivilised condition of Russia is a source of alarm. Had her people a prosperous and rapidly-extending trade, they would be averse from war, and would be careful to preserve the peace of the world. The English and the French, finding an ample stimulus for their activity in the pursuits of peace, have no inclination to molest or disturb their neighbours; but the Russians, having no hope from peace, making no progress, look out for occupation and rewards by invading other nations. The rest of mankind would have no dread of the Emperor's ambition, or of the fanaticism of his subjects, were the Slavonians and the Calmucks, that yet wander over the plains or haunt the forests of his immense territory, converted into prosperous, peaceful traders, like the bulk of the inhabitants of the West of Europe.

MEMOIR OF REDSCHID PACHA.

AN element in the opinion which should be formed in this country of the position and prospects of the Turkish question must consist in a knowledge of the character and antecedents of Redschid Pacha. M. Guizot, on a public occasion called him a "great man." It is the known opinion of Lord Redcliffe that he is the only honest man in the Turkish empire; and he is an historical figure worthy of some study, if only in his capacity as the "Reforming Vizier." But, at this moment, when his conduct and advice are affecting a controversy in which the peace of Europe may be involved, we should know all that is to be known of him.

Of all the Turkish statesmen, Redschid Pacha is the best known to the West. Among the other European "reforms" of the late Sultan Mahmoud was the institution of a diplomatic corps for the organisation of a representation of the Porte at the capitals of our great powers; and Redschid Pacha was the Plenipotentiary, in succession, to Paris and London—in each Court making the acquaintance of all the great European diplomatists and statesmen, from a continued and confidential communication with whom he probably derived those tendencies which subsequently pointed him out as the governing Minister in Turkey—viz., Minister for Foreign Affairs. He had been educated for Government—a rare training in Turkish governors; and his education was one of the best, though, perhaps, with reference to the culture of his country, of too enlightened a kind. He was born in Constantinople in 1802. His father, who died when he was a boy, was a functionary of the Sultan; and he was educated by Ali-Pacha, Governor of the Mores, who had taken as wife one of Redschid's sisters.

Ali Pacha made Redschid what we would call his private secretary; and as Ali Pacha went through the vicissitudes of statesmanship in Turkey—being made Grand Vizier, then disgraced, and then made commander-in-chief of the army which fought against Grecian independence—the young politician had great opportunities, of which, it would appear, he availed himself to the full; for when his patron and brother-in-law died, ruined by his failure in Greece, Redschid had become a well-known and trusted man. He was accepted in high offices of state as a competent bureaucrat; and in Constantinople his faculties as a linguist obtained for him the protection of the Sultan Mahmoud. The "Reform" era of that vigorous man had just commenced; he had annihilated the Janissaries, and, thus freed, was innovating on Mussulman habits and customs in all directions; and in Redschid Pacha (though we anticipate his title) he found a sympathiser—as bad a Turk, and as good a European—in theory. The Sultan was nearly ruined; he had been beaten in Greece by diplomacy. Russia had beaten his armies; his fleets were gone; and Mehmet Ali, in Egypt, was throwing off a loose allegiance; and he was comforted, in his distresses, by an assurance that he would immediately recover everything when he learned from the enemy, and adopted the European system. The Ministers at the moment were an old and worn-out man and a bigoted man: Khossien Pacha, who, a mimic of Talleyrand, agreed too readily with the Sultan; and Pertew Pacha who, a true Mussulman, opposed everything; and the ardent and ambitious young reformer easily intrigued his way into power between the two. In 1833, he became conspicuous as framer of the treaty of Kutahieh, to which Mahmoud was forced by his defeat at Konieh; and in 1834, with great prestige, he appeared as Envoy in Paris and in London—staying altogether two years in Europe. All his theoretical predilections for European ideas and organisations were confirmed by his experiences in these travels; and he returned an ultra-reformer. Pertew Pacha, in the interval, had reached the highest post in the Ministry, and now summoned Redschid Pacha to Constantinople to act as Minister for Foreign Affairs; and it was a strange illustration of Eastern politics, and one not likely to lessen Redschid's un-Turklike horror of the Turkish system; that before he reached the capital, Pertew had been bowstrung; the order for his

death having been obtained from Mahmoud by the other party when his Magnificence was dead drunk! Hence, Redschid Pacha re-entered Constantinople under sinister auspices; but it is indicative of his cleverness that he overcame the danger, and that, in a short time, playing upon Mahmoud's remorse, he had obtained the disgrace of Pertew's murderers, and secured himself complete power. In the East statesmanship is intrigue; and Redschid Pacha was a profound diplomatist. He immediately commenced a vigorous realisation of all the ameliorating projects of the Sultan; and, rapidly, the Turks were insurrectionary—every functionary was conspiring against him; Russia, suspicious, was backing the functionaries, and Mehmet Ali was bidding for Constantinople, as the only true defender of the faith. In fact, Redschid advanced too rapidly; and, having no natural support, either in the country or externally, he fell, and his disgrace was completed by being despatched on an extraordinary embassy to Lord Palmerston, his object in Europe being to effect an alliance against Russia. He extended his travels, this time, farther than on the first occasion; and for the first time in history a Turk was received by the Pope. In 1839 he found himself in Paris, a great political lion in French society; and it was here that the startling news reached him of Sultan Mahmoud's death, and the destruction of the Turkish army by the Egyptians, at the great battle of Nezib. This was the "Turkish crisis," which tried every statesman in Europe; it was the turning point in the hitherto successful career of Redschid Pacha. He proved equal to the occasion: ere he went, he had accomplished that quadruple alliance which baffled Mehmet Ali; and, at Constantinople, his flexible dexterity out-maneuvred all competitors for the favours of the young Sultan, Abdu'l-Medjid. In the Divan he became omnipotent; and the Hatti-Scheriff of Gulhana was the result—that Tanzimat which was to save, but which, according to some writers, has broken up, the Turkish Empire.

We need not enter very much further upon the career of Redschid Pacha. From the first he obtained a hold on the Sultan, and on Lord Redcliffe, who has been for ten years the real arbiter in Turkey; and, despite various intrigues (the last occurred the other day, when his old enemy, the Sultan's brother-in-law, obtained his temporary fall), he has sustained his prominence in the politics of the East. Soon after the declaration of the Tanzimat (reorganisation) he was again in Paris (1841) as Ambassador; and, from that date to 1846, when he became Grand Vizier, his life was a series of struggles with Riza Pacha, to maintain the new system against the old in domestic policy, and in foreign policy, to preserve Turkey, by sustaining, among European statesmen, the theory of that "balance of power," in the interests of which Turkey cannot, it is supposed, be sacrificed to Russia. Of the final struggle with Riza Pacha, an amusing—and, we believe, in the main a correct—account is given in Mr. Bayle St. John's new work, "The Turks in Europe." The narrative is a revelation of a Cabinet crisis in Constantinople. "Riza (1846) began to misconduct himself in the opinion of his royal mistress (the Sultan's mother). Her jealousy was excited, and she determined to overthrow him. This, however, was not to be done without the concurrence of Abdu'l-Medjid, who had now a will of his own, and who was not likely to be pleased by a confession of the real motives of her altered opinions. She accordingly communicated to the young Sultan reports which she had heard of the dissolute life of his Prime Minister, and urged him to ascertain the fact by personal observation. The counsel found favour in the eyes of his Majesty. He was told that Riza, as soon as the easy business of his day was over, used to retire to one of the imperial kiosques on the borders of the Bosphorus, and pass the night in jollity. The morning was generally spent in sleeping off the effects of this debauch, and on Friday, the Mahometan Sabbath, the orgie was generally recommenced in the afternoon, and continued during the second night. Accordingly, early one Friday, Abdu'l-Medjid took his caïque, and began to visit all his kiosques, one after the other. The navigation was tedious; time passed away; garden after garden was inspected; and no signs of the vassallars appeared. Towards evening, however, the caïque stopped at a landing-place, at some distance from which inland there was a kiosk, situated in a vineyard. By this time the Sultan was tired; yet, determined not to be balked in his researches, he sent one of his attendants with orders to bring him accurate accounts at midnight of whatever he observed. This done, Abdu'l-Medjid returned to his palace, half reassured as to the moral character of his Minister. But the attendant, on reaching the vineyard, found Riza, with several other dignitaries, bowl in hand surrounded by dancing-girls, engaged energetically in relaxing his mind, overpowered by political exertions. The dizzy conclave received him with acclamations of welcome; glorying, as toppers generally do, that there should be a new arrival to keep them in countenance, or encourage them to fresh excesses. The spy drank, and drank too much; and not till midnight did he remember the commands he had received. Hastening to stagger away, which he did unobserved, he repaired to the palace, where the Sultan impatiently awaited him. The words, which he found it impossible to utter, were unnecessary: his condition spoke for itself. The next day Riza Pacha was dismissed, and Redschid Pacha was named Vizier, and reform became again the order of the day."

Redschid Pacha is emphatically "a man of affairs;" orderly, astute, and business-like. If he has a failing it is his love of money; and it is a scandal that his star was once dimmed by the Sultan's belief in his tendency to peculation. Were, however, such an accusation well established, such a fault would be regarded as a venial one in such a country as Turkey. His unpopularity arises from other sources. He is too generally regarded as a tool of Lord Redcliffe; and the reason of that suspicion is that he agrees with Lord Redcliffe in considering that the world, and especially Turkey, is to be governed and saved by diplomacy. One cause of his favour with the present Sultan is his aversion to war; and, assuredly, it is not difficult to trace the mind of Redschid Pacha in those recent negotiations from which, for the present, Russia has gained such advantages over Turkey. It is sneeringly said of him, by the burly Mussulman party now clamouring for war, that he is "a poet;" and there is no doubt that he has, in his time, written verses, "for private circulation only." Whether a poet or not, he is not an impassioned one. What conquers the Mussulmans, with whom he is engaged in perpetual battle, is his icy manner and imperturbable stoicism. He is also unpoetic in appearance, being of a fat and ungainly figure.

It is not often that anything is to be said of the domestic affairs of a Turkish public man; but there is in this instance. Not a traveller but has something to say disparaging of the ménage of Redschid Pacha. As a reformer, preaching the European system, and discouraging, among other Turkish manners, the practice of polygamy, he confines himself to one wife; and that is a virtue which is sufficiently extolled. But he permits his wife to carry on a villainous trade; viz., the procuring, bringing up, and disposal of, young girls for the harems of others. In another respect he has failed in insisting upon a proper household. When English gentlemen visit him, they complain that they cannot obtain an audience without appeasing, at great expense, the clamours for "backshish" which are raised by his too numerous, dirty, and useless servants. It costs the English Ambassador 500 piastres, whenever he has to visit the Vizier; and, under these circumstances, it is surprising how friendly relations with England have been sustained. It is, however, admitted that he is worth the visit of a traveller. He speaks French admirably; and is candid and communicative, or appears to be so. He is also always complimented upon a remarkable re-

form: he is found sitting in a chair by a table, and asking the visitors to take a seat on the sofa!

His relations to the Sultan are about to be drawn still nearer by the marriage of his son to one of Abdu'l-Medjid's daughters—a somewhat disagreeable honour, for it will be the duty of the son to murder all the male children he may unhappily have.

(From another Correspondent.)

The question of the passing moment—the question which has long engaged the consideration of thoughtful men, but which is now pressed upon their attention with overwhelming power, is as to the fate of the Ottoman Empire. Is it to die out in Europe? Is it to be handed over to the Czar? Or, on its ruin, is a regenerated Greece to arise?

How these questions are to be answered depends much upon the character of Turkish statesmen. France and England can do much, but they cannot give a dead body life or prolong a nationality that has long ceased to exist. For the noble shelter she gave to Kossuth, Turkey deserves well of Europe; and for her consumption of English merchandise, for the scope she gives to our enterprise and skill, she deserves well of us in her hour of need. Even Mr. Macfarlane, no friendly witness, confesses that now English ladies may venture in the bazaars of Constantinople, and that the Christian may now walk her streets without being insulted by the proud fanatics who take the Koran as their guide. With the policy which has brought about this desirable consummation, the name of Redschid Pacha is indelibly associated. He is emphatically the Reform Minister. The change which has taken place in Turkish customs and Turkish laws is due to him, and it is well for Turkey that at this time her destiny is placed in his skilful hands.

All Europe is familiar with the name of Redschid Pacha. To glean, however, the particulars of his life is no easy task. In Turkey the antecedents of a statesman's life are not so well known as elsewhere. Nowhere are the freaks of fortune more widely illustrated than in Turkey. The great man of to-day to-morrow may be an outcast. The outcast of to-day to-morrow may be placed on the pinnacle of power. Nowhere do the extremes of society meet more than in Turkey. The only instance of hereditary rank acknowledged in Turkey were the Dere Beys (valley Lords), who transmitted their title and estates to their next heirs, and, in default of issue, could nominate a successor; and they were abolished by Sultan Mahmoud, the father of the present Sultan. In Turkey the highest Pachas often spring from origins the most obscure. The late Sultan's brother-in-law was a slave; Koshief Pacha, who for fifty years filled the highest dignities of State, was the same; so, also, was the brother-in-law of the present Sultan. Another brother-in-law was the son of a small shopkeeper in Galata. Ali Effendi, who began life as a clerk, was, in 1847, Minister of Foreign Affairs. Thus, in Turkey, statesmanship belongs to no class. Its honours all may aspire to—all may win.

Of the early life of Redschid Pacha we know nothing whatever. In 1834 he was Refendaz to the Divan. In 1836 we find him in the Turkish Embassy at Paris—an office for which his excellent knowledge of the French language and literature qualified him in an eminent degree. Subsequently, he was Ambassador to the British Court. He was first named Minister in 1846. Twice has he been Grand Vizier; thrice has he held his present office—that of Minister of Foreign Affairs. M. Bianchi, late Oriental Secretary to the Foreign Minister of France, says of him:—"Redschid Pacha is not only—by the European celebrity of his name—the first statesman in the Empire, but is also indisputably the Vizier whose past history recalls the greatest services rendered to the country and to civilisation. Among these services may be enumerated the constitutional act of Gulhane—the quarantines—the posts—the abolition of monopolies—the reorganisation of the army—the reform of the currency—the creation of the University; in short, all the important improvements by which Turkey has been favoured by the Sultans since 1838, have either been suggested or prepared, and executed, by Redschid Pacha, under the auspices of these Sovereigns." To Europeans this great act is better known as the Tanzimat—that greatest of all innovations on the Turkish Constitution, by which religious equality is granted to all the subjects of the Sultan, whether they believe the religion of the State, or bow to the Christian's God. Redschid Pacha has always been at the head of the party in Constantinople opposed to Russia; and between him and Lord Stratford de Redcliffe there has been a friendship of no common kind. Redschid Pacha's open rival has always been supported by the Sultan's mother, the Valide. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe has been the mainstay of Redschid Pacha's power. When he was absent Redschid Pacha's influence daily declined; as soon as it was known Lord Stratford de Redcliffe was fairly on his way to Constantinople, immediately Redschid's house was filled with visitors, and the *Journal de Constantinople* spoke of him with lavish praise.

A gentleman, now resident in Constantinople, and who had frequent opportunities of personal intercourse, speaks of Redschid Pacha in the highest terms. He describes him as well versed in history—French and logic—he writes good notes, is very much attached to Europeans, and ever ready to attend to their suggestions; he is very lenient to Christians—a virtue we need not add very rare among the Turks, though happily becoming more common every day. He has been charged with venality—a charge, however, which has never been substantiated; he is a very moral man, discountenances the Turkish habit of keeping a harem, and is the husband of one wife, by whom he has a family. His one fault is, that he is too mild and tender-hearted—that he is not sufficiently energetic for the trying time in which he lives, and the reckless adventurers that ever surround the Court. His age is fifty-two or four; he is of middle stature, has a handsome countenance, good eyes and head. Mr. Macfarlane, who is no admirer of Turkey in general, or of Redschid Pacha in particular, gives rather a different account of his personal appearance. Mr. Macfarlane says:—"I never saw him but once, when he was returning, through the filthy streets of Tophana, from a conference with the Sultan, at Dolma Baghè. He appeared to be a very different man from what he was when in London; he had grown obese, and his complexion had become muddied, he looked gloomy, uneasy, and sulky; but this may have proceeded from the fact, that he was then on the point of being thrust from place and power." In such circumstances a man may well look a little uneasy and sulky. In such circumstances Wolsey broke his heart, and the great Bacon crawled as a worm. We are told, when on the debate of the House of Commons on Lord Melville, the Speaker gave the casting vote against Ministers, even the haughty Pitt burst into tears. Mr. Macfarlane might have had more pity on a Minister about to be deposed.

With all foreigners Redschid Pacha is popular. In Turkey, however, there are a few grumblers who dislike his reforming ways, and sigh, as did our own Lord Eldon and Sir Charles Wetherell, at the approach of inevitable ruin. Of course Mr. Macfarlane craved to pick up one of these gentry. To him thus spake our Turkish croaker:—"It is all one," said he, "whether Riza is up and Redschid down, or Riza down and Redschid up. The one cannot govern worse than the other—nor better. Neither of them can be more than a part of a bad and complicated machine. Neither of them can alter the system of government, or check the influence of the Seraglio, or create honesty or good faith where none exist, or awaken conscience in men who never knew the meaning of such a word. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe will support Redschid because he believes him to be not only the better Minister of the two, but also a good and honest man. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe will

find out his mistake. There is a difference, though it is of no consequence to us; Redschid has more of what is called enlightenment than Riza. Redschid has travelled a good deal in Christendom—has resided also in London and Paris. Redschid sometimes reads French books. He is a man of quiet habits and decent life, and not a rake, nor a debauchee, like Riza. Then, while Riza is accused of a leaning towards Russia, Redschid professes the utmost dread and hatred of that power." Still, in this portrait, drawn by an unfriendly hand, Redschid appears in a better light than his great rival. Of course if the world has blundered, if there be no such thing as progress; if that be not our "destined end or way," the great Turkish reformer is an enemy to his country. On the contrary, if there be progress; if the savage can be refined into the civilised and educated man; if humanity can become a great and glorious fact, then Redschid Pacha deserves our sympathy and praise. We assume that European civilisation is correct; that woman should be man's companion; that man should be educated; that he should lead a decent life, and practise a Catholic creed. So far as Turkey has been concerned, such has been Redschid's aim. Surely it is better to help in such a work than to go moaning through the streets, as Mr. Macfarlane's informant did, exclaiming "We are no longer Mussulmans, the Mussulman's sabre is broken; the Osmanlies will be driven out of Europe by the Giaour, and driven through Asia to the regions from whence they first sprang. It is *kismet*. We cannot resist destiny."

The Portrait of Redschid Pacha upon the preceding page has been engraved from a fine sketch by Sir David Wilkie, R.A., the property of Mrs. Johanna W. Batty, and to be seen at Messrs. Graves and Co., Printers, Pall-Mall.

THE DETERIORATED CONDITION OF OUR SADDLE-HORSES.

UNDER this title an interesting and important pamphlet has just been published by Messrs. Hatchard. The author writes with the authority of an experienced cavalry officer, through whose hands, or under whose inspection, a very considerable number of horses are annually passing. England has long been famous for the possession of breeds of horses unrivalled for beauty, for swiftness, for size, and power; equally fitted for luxury and labour, for war and chase, for harness and for equitation. For centuries we have prided ourselves on the possession and the cultivation of these noble animals; for more than two hundred years we have pursued their improvement with an ardour in which love of the animal has been combined with the commercial spirit which forms so marked a feature in the English character. We are almost the only settled and civilised race, in whom the passion for horse exercise is found pervading both sexes, and all ages and conditions of life, with little less fervour than among the nomad tribes of the plains of Tartary, the deserts of Arabia, or the pampas of South America. In Spain, in Germany, and in France, the wealthy and the military ride as a matter of state and fashion, and that chiefly when they are young; the humbler classes rarely, except as part of their occupation, and the aged and the dignified seldom, except when compelled for need of other means of conveyance. But with us aged peers, reverend bishops, learned judges, careful bankers, authors and artists, physicians and barristers, set an example, which runs down to the butcher's boy and the costermonger.

Among the early signs of success in the errand-boy become a merchant, or the prizefighter grown into a publican, the most frequent is to be found in a horse. The celebrated Jack Langan's ambition was completed, when he grew wealthy, by a white hat and a big horse. As England is one of the few civilised countries in which people ride for the sake of the pleasure of riding, and not for state or fashion, so it is naturally one of the countries in which children of all ranks ride at a very early age. There is no such word as pony in any other language, than the English. While the French boy is beating a miniature drum, or flourishing a tin sabre, the English boy is caracolling on a horse-headed stick, or mounted on a broad-backed Sheltie "a world too wide for his short shanks."

It would require a very rapid increase in horse-breeding to supply the constantly-growing demand of such a nation as ours, if no causes were at work to check the supply. But it so happens that, large as is the demand for live horse-flesh, the demand for dead mutton is considerably greater, and the supply of it a more profitable transaction. We have no exact statistics of either the one or the other; but the result of all our inquiries leads to the conclusion that thousands of acres formerly devoted to horse stock or oats are now covered with turnips and sheep.

An increased price will soon cure any deficiency in the supply of horses; but price alone cannot create quality. It is the opinion of the author of the work before us that the English saddle-horse is, and has been for some time, deteriorating in constitution and in powers of endurance. He gives his reasons for this belief; and they are worth consideration. He takes the cavalry as an example. He asserts that, even during the Peninsular War, the expense of keeping up our cavalry, from the delicacy of our horses, was "intolerable." That, in the useful qualities, they were inferior to the French cavalry. The late Lord Harcourt told him, in 1826, that the 15th and 16th Regiments of Light Dragoons, which went with him to America, exhibited a union of strength and activity unknown at the time he was speaking; and yet the cavalry horses of 1826 were much better than they are at present.

At the Encampment at Chobham the horses are covered in at the picket-post; while at the encampment at Weymouth, in 1805, horses, tied to the picket-post in the open air were kept in the finest condition. This housing of the cavalry at Chobham is one of the many proofs of the deterioration of our horses:—"The Life Guards in Spain had a large portion of their men dismounted by the horses getting sore backs, while only marching up the country to join the army; and a few years afterwards the 1st Life Guards suffered from the same cause in only marching from London to Nottingham."

We have, according to the showing of the author, an expensive force of cavalry mounted on horses unequal to the weight they have to carry, liable to sore backs after a short march, so tender that a brief exposure to the vicissitudes of a campaign would decimate them, and so weak in their legs and feet that a series of moderate marches would render a large proportion useless from lameness. If we turn from cavalry to saddle-horses, we are pressed by the difficulty of finding animals which are at once active and enduring.

The deterioration of our cavalry and of our saddle-horses may be traced to two causes—to one of which our author scarcely alludes. We have no longer the large class of useful horses from which our cavalry was drafted before good turnpike roads and railroads put an end to travelling on horseback.

As we have no breeding establishments like those maintained in France, the German States, and Russia, we obtain our horses from private breeders. As long as there was a large demand for good roadsters, there was a large supply, and from this supply, the cavalry were easily mounted. But the demand does not exist. Road travelling with saddle-bags has ceased. Pack-horse travelling has ceased. Road-gig driving has almost passed away. Stage-coaches are things of the past generation.

There is no sure demand now for an animal which has not beauty, fashion, and showy action, as well as face. Not one half-bred colt in ten, probably not one in fifty, will make a hundred guinea park hack;

the remainder, which might formerly have made plain roadsters, from the diminution of road and coach travelling, are almost unsaleable. Breeders confine themselves to thorough-breds for the turf, of which we shall presently say something; to cart-horses, which, when good, have qualities exactly the reverse of hacks; to harness horses, which must be too large to make good saddle-horses; and to hunters, which may be excellent with faults which would utterly condemn them as roadsters. A big horse can always be sold for a brougham, or a family cruelty-van, or an omnibus; or, if black, for a hearse. But a stable full of compact roadsters of the old school, that would travel for weeks, carrying fourteen stone, twenty-five to thirty-five miles a day without being sick or sorry, would scarcely fetch £30 a piece all round, unless they had that showy action and elegant form which are admired in the parks.

But there is another reason for the deterioration of our cavalry horses, on which the author dilates at some length, and with effect. We have increased the size and the speed of our race-horses, while diminishing the weights they carry, at the expense of their constitutions and powers of endurance. As yearlings they reach fifteen hands and a half; at two years old they race; at three they acquire the reputation that makes them stud horses; at four they break down, or, if they survive, are considered old at six; and are then usually withdrawn to raise stock as swift for a short distance and as feeble in constitution as themselves. With this early maturity have come a host of diseases unknown to horses reared in a more natural state.

Races are now arranged to suit the capacity of the modern feeble race. By a quotation from the late Mr. Smith's work on breeding for the turf we learn that between 1718 and 1764, races were usually run on distances of four to six miles. We hear of a horse called Exotic, who commenced running in 1760 and continued on the turf until the year 1767. During this period he won eighteen times; and in his seventh year on the turf won a race of four-mile heats in four heats at Peterborough. We have had no such enduring horses in our time except Mr. Mytton's Euphrates, who did not commence running on the turf until he was seven years old. Cartouch, another horse of the same period as Exotic, was only fourteen hands high; but it was supposed that no horse was able to run him carrying twelve stone weight. Black Chance ran from 1737 to 1744, winning five times in one season—at Guildford, Salisbury, Winchester, Lewes, and Lincoln, every race four miles, and every race contested.

If we turn from these and similar records of the constitution and powers of race-horses of the last century to carry heavy weights through four-mile heats, to their portraits, as handed down to us by Seymour and other artists, we find an explanation of their powers in their "short legs, deep bodies, wide hips, and strong loins." Whenever horses of the same stamp are bred now, they are found too slow for our short races, made hunters, and we lose the benefit of their lasting stock. The race-horses of the present day are many of them lame before starting for their first race; others are rendered so for life by running a short race like that called "The Derby." Nearly all are, more or less, infirm from their birth, "knuckling in their pastern joints before they have done an hour's work." They exhibit straight shoulders to an extent unknown to our turf so late as thirty years ago. The young stock show, from their earliest years, constitutional weakness. They cannot move about for some days after they are born. The foals of other breeds move about as soon as dropped. They are forced on as much corn as they can eat, and for the first twelve months the whole milk of a cow is devoted to them.

Their weak constitutions are the effect of breeding, without regard to the principles of form, from those animals which acquire a fleeting reputation on the turf. These winners are few in number; and the consequence is, breeding in and in, which accounts for the prevalence of the defects we have recited.

The growing weakness of our race-horses has been met by giving them less to do. The great race of the year is a three-year-old race; and, after three years, weights are so multiplied on a winning horse as to render a long career impossible. "To the Jockey Club, or gentlemen who breed race-horses, it matters not what is the character of their horses as a whole, each individual desiring only to have the best of that whole; and they are content to see their horses lose every quality but speed."

So far we have gone with the author; but when we come to consider his remedies, we can no longer follow his line.

He very justly concludes that to breed hacks for moderate speed, long endurance, and firm healthy legs and feet, no stock are equal to well-selected Arabs. This has been proved in Prussia, where the breed, deteriorated by crosses with the large, delicate English blood horse, have been restored by the introduction of superior Arabs. We cannot show anything like the performance of the Prussian mountain artillery, which charges up and down places apparently inaccessible to horses without guns. In like manner, in Australia, where great size is not required, and the chief market is found in the Indian cavalry, it is well known that the best stock has been produced by crossing the Arab with the English blood-mares. And, although the Arabs introduced have rarely been of the first class, the performances of the colonial horses on long journeys, at a high rate of speed, have equalled the best work of our ancestors' famous hackneys. There are well-authenticated instances of two hundred miles having been done on grass by colonial horses in three days; while, in drawing Indian artillery, the English-imported horses were utterly defeated in competition with the produce of Australia. Shropshire long possessed a superior class of hunters, crossed with Arabs; introduced by the great Lord Clive. But it is quite hopeless to expect that, as a matter of speculation, the general class of breeders will make use of Arab blood, from which they are not likely to derive any benefit in less than two or three generations. As Arabs are usually small, and not likely to breed either racers, or hunters, or carriage-horses, such experiments must be left to enthusiasts among noblemen and gentlemen, among whom correct principles of breeding may eventually make way.

At present, breeding of race and almost all other horses is conducted on purely empirical principles. A stud horse is chosen because he is the fashion. Those points which are so carefully studied in selecting pure bred bulls, or rams, are rarely considered in breeding a colt. The short-horn, or South Down breeder, seeks to amend the faults of the cow or ewe by corresponding merits in the bull or ram. The breeder of the race-horse, which is the very foundation of all our hunters and hacks, looks for such blood as will make his yearlings sell well. As for the ordinary run of breeders of half-bred horses, chance and fancy direct the selection of stallions.

The author of the work which has formed the text of our remarks, desires to see premiums for enduring horses, offered in the shape of Queen's Plates, to be run for in long distances, at heavy weights, without regard to age. We have little faith in any such remedy, unless it be in Ireland, where the usual stakes are insignificant, the tastes of the people for sport strongly developed, and the country peculiarly suited for horse-breeding. Here the stakes in all the great races, and the speculations of betting, reduce Plates and Cups to insignificance. We must trust rather to the general diffusion of instruction in the true principles of form and of breeding. Few know what is the appropriate form for a horse intended to gallop, and for a horse intended to draw; fewer still how to secure the greatest probability of a well-shaped foal by choosing sire and dam. Yet these things can be taught. If they were taught, we should not see well-bred horses crossed with cart-horses.

It would be well to teach our infant ploughman the points of a good cart-horse from models, as compared with the points of a good hackney or hunter, as well as the principles of draught. In like manner, the anatomy of the horse should form part of the instruction of farmers';

sons. If it did, the influence would soon rise to the higher classes; and whenever cavalry subalterns, as well as field-officers are, as a body, well informed as to what a good road horse ought to be, the condition of our regiments will improve. At present, we are ruled by fashion. There is no commercial demand for the class of horses required by the cavalry. Our breeders are not sufficiently well informed to know that we should always be trying to amalgamate the loins and quarters of a Crucifix mare with the perfect forehead of a Touchstone. We can hope for nothing from Government interference; we must trust to educating the horse-breeding and horse-buying public; and it will take some time to do that. In the meantime, we commend to the Education Committee of the Privy Council, and to the School of Design, at Marlborough-house, the advantage of circulating through the country models of the points which produce swiftness, and of the points which produce powers of draft. The lecture on the horse would be both popular and profitable in country schools.

THE RUSSIAN FLEET.

A correspondent of the *Times* says:—"On the 15th ult. his Imperial Highness the Crown Prince had inspected the two divisions of the Baltic fleet lying in the roads of Cronstadt, 37 sail strong, which thereupon put out to sea, as was said, to cruise in the Bay of Finland. British seamen, who have had opportunity of making a nearer acquaintance with these vessels than merely passing by them whilst they lie imposingly at anchor, speak very disrespectfully of their seaworthiness and the talents of Russian sailors in handling their ships. It seems that the greater part of the vessels are older than deal-built ships can generally be kept water-tight, and that the slightest approach to rough weather compels a very numerous and strenuous attendance of hands at the pumps. Jack says they don't put out to sea, even in fair weather, for fear it should turn foul before they can get back into port. The Russian sailors are admitted, however, to be good gunners." This is by no means a fair or just account of the Russian fleet; for the Russian ships, especially those composing the Baltic fleet, are manned chiefly by Finlanders, a hardy race, the best of northern seamen. "Jack" is a prejudiced fellow when speaking of foreign sailors, and in this case we believe he speaks from prejudice alone; for it is well known that the Baltic fleet is exercised more at sea than any other fleet in the world, and they are sure to pick up bad weather in their usual cruising ground. We have no doubt that a British man-of-war, of equal force to the Russian man-of-war, would in an action, without doubt, capture or destroy the latter; but we must not underrate our enemy, nor talk of their bad ships, when we have line-of-battle-ships in commission in our navy that could not open their lower deck ports in anything but moderate weather.—*Plymouth Mail*.

THE RUSSIAN ARMY.

THE English public has no idea of the extent or nature of the military resources of Russia. We are almost afraid to state the number of soldiers constituting the peace-armament of that country; and, doubtless, it may be considered a joke if we set them down in time of peace, at two millions. Nevertheless, that is about the force. In old times, to talk of Holland was to talk of ships, a great navy, an ever-active commerce, and innumerable colonies. At present, to speak of Russia, is to speak of a great military establishment. The country is a vast camp, and the male part of the people are but one immense army. To be a Russian is to be one of these three things—a woman, a serf, or a soldier. Once under the colours, that transformation about which Curran was so eloquent is effected: the hereditary chains fall to the ground, and the slave is not only enfranchised, but ennobled. Here we perceive a motive power more effective than press-gangs or conscriptions. In order to estimate the warlike strength of a nation, it is not enough to know how many troops it can place under arms, or habitually keeps on foot; but what is the spirit which animates them—whether they are well-disciplined and brave, or the reverse. For example, the Chinese may have a still more numerous army, and certainly they have a smaller space to garrison. But they are not a formidable people. Of valour, the Russians possess that share which seems to have been liberally given to all nations who dwell in cold climates, and are obliged to endure physical hardships. But the nature of their institutions is of still greater effect in rendering them firm and intrepid in the presence of the enemy. The old notion was this: the Russians will not turn their backs, because they will be shot if they do. When once they get home, or beyond reach of further molestation, all manner of courts-martial are held, and whoever has fled from the foe is put to death without pity, and without delay. As well be killed with honour in battle, as be executed in disgrace after a defeat. This idea is not without foundation, inasmuch as no army ever existed in which a discipline so rigorous and so stringent was observed. Not even the legions of ancient Rome were subjected to a more unrelaxing treatment.

But severity is not the only spur to duty. Slavery determines and ceases once under the colours. The grades of the army correspond with the degrees of nobility; and there is a military hierarchy which begins with him who gets the first humble "galons" or marks upon the sleeve of his left arm. It has been well observed that religion blends with all those military institutions which have produced a great effect in the world. The most irreligious of conquering armies was that of France, between 1793 and 1812; and even that army had a sort of superstition to compensate for its want of faith. It trusted blindly and devotedly in its "Little Corporal," who was visited, as it believed, by his "red man;" while he, in turn, mused about his star. The Romans of old were invincible, because they thought that they were; and, not to lose time in examples, which will occur in numbers to every reader of history, the modern Russian army is as superstitious a force as ever was marshalled under any banner. Their Emperor, who is, *ipso officio*, Commander-in-Chief, stands to them *locopropheta*. He is the Viceregent of the Almighty. All his Ukases have some reference to his divine character. He cannot publish a state paper, without alluding to the sacred mission which he has to fulfil, and to the furtherance and glorification of that orthodox faith of which he is the recognised head. That so many Emperors of Russia should have been assassinated as to suggest to a witty person the idea that murder was "the natural death" of a Russian monarch, would show how weak great convictions are to prevent great crimes, only that the criminals have almost always belonged to the aristocracy. The credulous and honest mass of the people never lift their hand against the Czar. With them regicide is parricide. Even the present Emperor's addresses to his subjects show the prevalent feeling. In the instance of the insurrection, which he suppressed by showing himself in the Haymarket at St. Petersburg, and making a speech, he began by lecturing the mob on the reverence due to the Supreme Being, and to his viceregerents; and he finished by commanding them to kneel down, and ask first the forgiveness of God and then his. The command was instantly and unhesitatingly obeyed. With this great fanaticism, with its wonderful organisation, and with its prodigious numbers, the Russian army, which is the very soul of the Russian people (all Russia seeming to be itself an army), is formidable indeed. We have mentioned its organisation. We have not here time or space to explain the marvellous pecuniary arrangements by which its efficiency is constantly preserved. A more wonderful instance of economy, and a more striking mixture of the civil and the military life is not furnished by the history of mankind; but we cannot stay to describe the system. In a military sense, those are mistaken who fancy that the Russian army depends solely on brute force, on numbers and on frenzy, for its strength. Nothing can be more elaborate than the manner in which it is trained. All modern improvements are added to this primitive enthusiasm. There is a regiment at St. Petersburg, not a man of which



RUSSIAN INFANTRY.—GRENADIERS.

but belongs to a different corps from that of his neighbours, rank and file. As chemists say that the human body is perpetually changing its ingredients, so is this regiment. No soldier stays in it more than two years; after that he departs for his own proper regiment—for that which he leaves was but a school in which he learned whatever innovations in military accoutrements, and in their use, the march of years might have invented. Like a lamp which is continually emitting its rays and never losing in bulk, this regiment is constantly dispersing teachers throughout the army of the empire—some departing for Poland, and some for Siberia; some carrying the most recent inventions to the garrison of Archangel, and some charged to impart them to the columns on the Pruth. The corps to which we allude is called “the model regiment;” it is composed of the best and most intelligent men of every other; it draughts into itself by degrees, and returns the very *élite* of the army, and is the fountain of all science and progress in matters of war. It is always stationed in the capital. Such an institution might not be amiss in more civilised forces.

We have said enough to give an idea of the organisation of an army which thinks itself destined to conquer the world, and which is the very pick and choice of the nation, with whose flag it is entrusted. The Russian infantry is famous. All pains have been taken for forty years with the artillery; and since the extinction of the Mameluke Cavalry, such light horse as the Cossacks has nowhere existed.

The Prince Paskewitch is at the head of the active army of Russia. The Russian army, according to the latest returns, is composed of 238 brigades, 318 regiments, 889 battalions, 325 batteries, 1469 squadrons, and 4900 companies. A letter from St. Petersburg states that recruiting is being carried on at a greater rate than at any time since 1848: previously, one, two, or at most three per 1000 were taken; after 1848, this was raised to from four to six. The last conscription began last autumn, and ended by the beginning of this year; and now there is a fresh conscription called for, to the unprecedented extent of ten men in 1000. The numerous and rapid journeys of the Emperor's adjutants to and from St. Petersburg had, for the most part, the acceleration of these levies for their object. Formerly, these conscriptions were made in autumn and winter, when the men were not so much wanted in the fields; but this time it has taken place in the midst of summer.

The *Constitutionnel* gives the following account of the Russian army from a source which it considers to be authentic:—

The Russian army is divided into the troops on active service, the reserve, and the local troops. The active army, of which the headquarters are at Warsaw, is composed of 18 divisions of infantry, or from 216,000 to 252,000 men; of 6 divisions of cavalry, or 28,000 men; of 72 batteries of foot artillery, or 12,960 men; and 864 pieces of cannon; and of 6 batteries of mounted artillery, 720 men, and 48 cannons. The whole force of the active army does not, consequently, altogether, make up 300,000 men, with 942 pieces of cannon.

The reserve is composed of the body-guard, the colonised grenadiers, two colonised corps of cavalry, and of the 5th and 6th *dépôt*-battalions of the infantry regiments. The whole force of the body-guards and colonised grenadiers is 96,000 men, and 320 pieces of cannon; the force of the two colonised bodies of cavalry is 24,000 men and forty pieces of cannon; as to the force of the 5th and 6th battalions of infantry belonging to the reserve, it is almost impossible to ascertain it with any certainty, as these battalions are only destined in a certain measure to fill up the vacancies which occur in the regiments of the line in the time of a campaign or of forced marches. The total number of the infantry regiments being 120, there would be 240 reserve battalions, or about 210,000 foot soldiers, if these battalions were complete; but, as they are constantly sending their men to the regiments to which they belong, their existence is rather nominal than effective. It would be too much, in fact, to say that this part of the reserve amounts to 120,000 men, but we put down that amount for the purpose of calculation, and then there will be a total force of the whole reserve of 240,000 men and 360 pieces of cannon. The local troops are the corps of the Caucasus, composed of 3 divisions of infantry and 12 batteries of foot artillery; that of Finland, with 4 battalions; that of Orenbourg, on the frontier of Turkestan, with 4 battalions; and that of Siberia, with 4 batteries: in all, from 72,000 to 84,000 men, and 288 pieces of cannon. The regular army of Russia, therefore, consists of 30 divisions, or 120 regiments of infantry, and of 15 divisions, or 60 regiments, of cavalry; and counts, at most, with the reserve and the *dépôts*, 628,000 men, and 1540 pieces of cannon; to which must be added from 30,000 to 50,000 Cossacks of various denominations, with their light artillery, as well as the interior guard and the gendarmierie. Out of that number there can really be disposed of in Europe only the active army, the body-guards, the grenadiers, and the two reserve bodies of cavalry—in all, 420,000 men, 72,000 horses, and 1,272 cannon: a considerable force, certainly, but not greater than others of the first-rate powers can bring into the field in time of war.



CHEVALIER GUARD.

HUSSARS.
RUSSIAN CAVALRY.

DRAGONS.

THE TURKISH ARMY.

"The Turkish army, as at present organised and equipped," says a letter from Constantinople, in the *Times*, "has never yet been brought face to face with a European force. In the last Russian war, the Nizam, or regulars, were a few raw, ill-organised conscripts, and the greater part of the army was composed of a hasty levy of irregulars. At present, the regular force that Turkey can bring into the field consists of seven ordous, or camps, each of 35,000 men, and each of these has a redif, or reserve force, of those who, having served five years in the regular army, have still seven years to serve as militia on extraordinary occasions. The strength of this redif varies, of course, according to the length of time that the ordou has been in existence. The Turkish soldier is well fed; he has two meals a day—his dinner consisting of two dishes with animal food, to which twice a week a sweet dish is added. He is also well clothed, and carefully tended as to his comforts; which are not disturbed by over much drill, as is evident by his awkward and boorish appearance, which he never loses, and in which he does not much differ from his superior officers. A foreigner in Turkish uniform is distinguished at once by his smart and erect carriage.

"Besides the regular army, Turkey contains a vast irregular force of great variety, which might be made most useful during a campaign. In European Turkey, the Bosnians are a warlike race, and under their feudal system—which was crushed, though not extinguished, by Omer Pacha—could furnish a large population of fighting men, both foot and cavalry. The horses are small and thickset, but active beasts, and well adapted for their mountainous country; their riders are armed with a long gun, gaily ornamented with mother-of-pearl and silken tassels, besides a yatagan, or long knife, and pistols. The foot are armed in the same manner. This race of Slavonians are remarkable for their large robust frame and warlike spirit. They were bound, under the ancient feudal system, to furnish a large force of armed men for the service of the empire; and in the late war with Russia this force marched towards the Balkan, but were not permitted to pass through Servia, since Milosh, the Servian Prince, was in the interest of Russia, and checked them with the Servian troops. The Bosnians are the most fanatical Mussulmans, and are distinguished from their fellow Christians by wearing the turban; the rest of their costume is like that of almost all the Slavonians of Asia Minor. The Montenegrins, being Christians and under the influence of Russia, could only be counted on as one of the many means of annoyance that Russia has in her hands. South of these, the Albanians, a kilted people, who resemble the ancient Scottish Highlanders even in costume, are entirely composed of foot, and are as hardy, dirty, and savage as any mountain warriors in the world. They are excellent riflemen, and are Mussulmans or Christians, much as their interest suits them. They are employed in garrison work in every remote corner of the empire, and are everywhere the terror of the peasant. The Grand Vizier is an Albanian; indeed, they have furnished many remarkable men. The Bulgarians, like the Greeks, are chiefly Christian, and are, therefore, not to be counted on for the defence of the empire. The Servians have the right of keeping a militia, but it is never called out. The Wallachians and Moldavians have a force, but of the most wretched description, unfit for anything but overawing a mob.



TURKISH SOLDIER.

"In Asia Minor, the Osmanlis compose the agricultural and town populations, and the use of arms is very common among them, though they cannot be called an armed race; the towns generally contain garrisons of regular soldiers, so that the citizen merely dons his arms when undertaking a journey. The nearest Mussulman neighbours to Russia

are the Lagi, a small but savage people, inhabiting the ancient Colchis, and, until lately, serving feudally under Dere Beys; which custom still maintains to a certain extent, but nothing like what it was formerly, when a small army could be raised in a few days under the heads of their chiefs ready for active service. These Lagi have a distinct language of the Indo-Germanic family, and are a hardy aboriginal race of red-bearded mountaineers, quite distinct from the Turks, but joined to them by the powerful sympathy of religion. They are all footmen, and are armed with a short heavy rifle, a *caimé*, or large broad dagger, and pistols. About thirty years ago, an army of 500 of them besieged Trebizond, but were negotiated with, and induced to retire. They are agriculturists and fishermen, and inhabit villages which are thinly scattered in the dense pine forests covering that mountainous tract lying south of the river Phasis. From the coast of the Black Sea to the Taurus chain of mountains a great part of the population is nomad, and, besides the Turks or Osmanlis (and the Armenian and Greek Christians, who are non-combatants), consists of two distinct races—the Turcomans, who possessed themselves of the land before the advent of the Osmanlis, and who wander with their black tents up to the shores of the Bosphorus; and the Kurds on the east, the ancient Carduchi, who harassed the 10,000 Greeks, and who, in the middle ages, gave the great Saladin for the defence of Islam. These latter people are partly nomad, most of them leaving their huts in the mountains to wander with their tents and flocks in the rich valleys during the summer months. These people are found from Ararat to the southern mountains of Persia, and consequently dwell in every variety of climate, and lead from childhood a sort of military life.

"The northern Kurds about Ararat are still the very models of mediæval Eastern warriors, such as Saladin led against the Western knights of Christendom. The adventurous tourist may at the present day, while traversing some broad valley in these regions, suddenly come upon a troop of these Kurds, mounted on active, spare, and high-bred looking horses, and clothed head and trunk with chain mail armour, and armed with the long tapering lance, the mace, the scimitar, or battle-axe; their chiefs being distinguished by the richness of their arms, their superior horses, and the white plume of the egret in front of the polished casque. In the highest mountains the Carduchi are still found among the crags of Bohtan and Julamerk, but are not horsemen. Their arms are the rifle and dagger, both of home manufacture. Their enormous and many-coloured turbans and their brilliant costume give them a remarkable appearance; and their fierce melancholy countenance is but an index of that stern fanaticism which but seven or eight years ago sacrificed many thousands of the Nestorian Christian mountaineers. Further south we still find the same people, with the same habits, but first-rate horsemen, who have within the last thirty or forty years substituted guns for bows and arrows; and who, in combat, quickly wheeling round their horses and discharging their guns while fleeing, are, like the ancient Scythians, more terrible in retreat than in onset.

"The Turcomans, who are spread over the whole of Asia Minor, are also a most warlike people. Clans numbering many thousands acknowledge the Sultan as the representative of the Caliphs and the



TURKISH ARTILLERY.

Sovereign Lord of Islam, from whom all the Frank Kings receive their crowns; but they are practically independent of him, and pay no taxes but to their own chiefs. In the neighbourhood of Casarea, Kusan Oghlon, a Turcoman chief, numbers 20,000 armed horsemen, rules despotically over a large district, and has often successfully resisted the Sultan's arms. These people lead a nomad life, are always engaged in petty warfare, are well mounted, and armed with pistol, scimitar, spear, or gun; and would always be useful as irregular troops.

"South of the Taurus we still find numerous Kurds and Turcomans, but the Arab element begins and prevails, as we travel southward, to the exclusion of every other. The citizens and villagers of Arabistan are not unaccustomed to the call to arms; but the Bedouins, as is well known, are incomparable in all that relates to long marches, sudden onslaughts, plundering convoys, and the harassing of retreating armies. These swarthy savages—poor, ill-armed, and almost naked—are yet far better mounted than any other nomads; and, for anything but actual fighting, would be superior to either Kurd or Turcoman. The Arab is essentially brave, and battle is the breath of his nostrils; but, as he loves his mare better than himself, he dislikes too close combat, lest his four-footed friend and companion should be injured. The Bedouin is seldom armed with any other weapon than a long lance and a rude sabre, though the Arabs about Syr have frequently guns. Many great Sheikhs could on an extraordinary occasion bring 20,000 or 30,000 men into the field, mounted on animals incomparable for speed and endurance, whose riders are endowed with extraordinary instincts for living in and ranging wildernesses, where any other creatures would die of hunger and thirst. Add to these the Druses of the Lebanon, the Yezidees, and other armed non-Muslims, who would probably fight where most plunder was to be gained, and you have a rude and imperfect, though, I believe, truthful sketch of the irregulars of Turkey. I have not mentioned the Bashi Bozouks or Hytas, who, like the *condottieri* of mediæval Italy, sell their services to that Pacha who promises most pay and plunder. They are dying out as a force, and do not amount to many hundreds."

THE IMPENDING WAR WITH RUSSIA.

CONSTANTINOPLE, July 25.

Great conferences have been held at the Porte.

A courier has again been sent to Vienna.

The Ambassadors all agree on the acceptance of the demands of Russia, with modifications.

The Banner of the Prophet has not yet been unfurled, nor the Holy Shirt displayed.

The Guards have been sent to Schumla.

Public feeling is more tranquil.

Armaments continue.

Exchange on London, 118.

The decision of the Cabinet of St. Petersburg upon the propositions before it has not yet been ascertained; but the intelligence from the Danubian Principalities, and the firmness with which the Governments of France and England are insisting upon the immediate withdrawal of the Russian troops from Moldavia and Wallachia, give a more threatening aspect to the Eastern question than it has yet assumed. From undertaking the whole civil administration of the Principalities, Russia has proceeded to stimulate or compel the native chiefs to a renunciation of their allegiance. The Prince of Servia "declines" to bear arms against Russia—the Hospodars of Moldavia and Wallachia inform the Divan that they are no more its tributaries. The Sultan replies by ordering the Hospodars to quit the Principalities, disobedience to which may precipitate the long-delayed crisis. Meanwhile the French and English Governments have instructed their Consul-General at Bucharest to remove their flags and retire from the Principalities, and the representatives of those powers at St. Petersburg have been instructed to represent to the Russian Government the grave events by which a refusal to evacuate the Danubian provinces must be followed. The gravity of the crisis will be best seen by a conversation in the House of Lords, on Tuesday night, between the Marquis of Clanricarde and the British Minister for Foreign Affairs, the Earl of Clarendon:—

OCCUPATION OF THE DANUBIAN PROVINCES.

The Marquis of CLANRICARDE: My Lords, seeing my noble friend the Secretary for Foreign Affairs in his place, I rise to put a question to him respecting some reports which have lately been received from the Danubian Provinces of Moldavia and Wallachia. According to the accounts in the newspapers, the Russian military authorities appear to have taken entire possession of that country, and to have proceeded to administer the government thereof. In the reports to which I have alluded, it is stated that the Commander-in-Chief of the Russian forces had ordered the Hospodars not to transmit any tribute to Constantinople; and it has been stated in one report that he went so far as to say that any tribute paid to the Sultan would require to be paid over again to his own master. Moreover, it is stated that those personages to whom the local administration of the country was intrusted had been required to hold no further communication with Turkey (Hear, hear). Now this is virtually and really an assumption of the sovereignty of the country by the Czar, and it is impossible that such an act as that can take place without leading very directly to a terrible war (Hear, hear). It is, therefore, of the highest importance to this country, and to this House, that we should have whatever information can be afforded to us, without inconvenience, at the earliest moment (Hear, hear). I hold that it is impossible for Europe, or France, or England to submit to such an extension of territory in that direction by Russia, or to such a diminution of the Turkish Empire, which must be attended with the greatest and most fearful consequences (Hear, hear, hear). The matter is of the utmost importance, not merely to the political balance of Europe, and not merely to the honour of these countries, who are parties to treaties with Turkey, but also to the material interests affecting the welfare of all classes of persons, above all in Germany, in France, and very greatly in this kingdom (Hear, hear). It is a matter on which your Lordships must desire to have the fullest information that can with propriety be given; and therefore I trust my noble friend will not think I am indiscreet if I ask him whether any such accounts or reports as I have alluded to have reached him officially, and whether he can inform the House how far it is true that such an assumption of the sovereignty of those provinces by Russia has really taken place (Hear, hear).

The Earl of CLARENDON: My Lords, so far from thinking that my noble friend has committed any indiscretion in the question which he has put to me, I can assure him that I take so entirely the same view as he does as to what will be the result, not only to Turkey, but to Europe, and especially to this country, of any permanent alienation of the territory to which he has alluded from the Turkish empire, that I am glad he has put the question, in order that I may satisfy the public mind, as far as I am able, by giving my noble friend all the information I possess. (Hear, hear.) By a despatch dated the 17th of last month, I learnt from Lord Stratford de Redcliffe that a communication had been made by the Consul-General of Russia to the Hospodar of Moldavia, informing him that his relations with the Ottoman Government were to cease; and that the tribute usually transmitted to Constantinople was to be placed at the disposal of the Russian Government, upon the ground, as was stated, that although there existed no intention of modifying the internal institutions of Moldavia, or altering the existing order of things, yet that during the military occupation of the province the action of the sovereign power must necessarily, though temporarily, be suspended. I have to state, also, that the Turkish Government expected to receive similar information from the Hospodar of Wallachia; but I have received a despatch this morning from Mr. Colclough, our Consul General at Bucharest, dated the 22nd of last month, in which he says that up to that time (though it may have been the evening before) no such communication had been made to the Hospodar of the province of Wallachia. However, such a communication

was naturally expected by the Porte to be made to the Hospodar of Wallachia as well as of Moldavia, and it was the intention of the Porte, so soon as it received that information, to order the Hospodars to withdraw and cease their functions (Hear, hear). He further adds, that in that event he should consider it highly improper that the British Consuls in the Principalities should continue to exercise their functions; and I lost no time in communicating to Lord Stratford de Redcliffe the entire approval by her Majesty's Government of that course (Hear, hear). I can only further inform your Lordships that I shall, by the messenger who leaves London this night, instruct Sir Hamilton Seymour to demand from the Russian Government the explanation to which we are entitled of a matter which, as I have stated, I view in precisely the same light with my noble friend (Hear, hear).

In the House of Commons on the same evening, Lord D. STUART—after alluding to the negotiations going on between this country and all the Courts of Europe with relation to the differences which have arisen between the Courts of St. Petersburg and Constantinople—wished to know whether Lord John Russell intended to fix a day, when Mr. Layard might make his long-delayed motion on the Eastern question, or when the Government would be prepared to make a statement on this subject. In reply to this appeal the following conversation took place:—

Lord J. RUSSELL: Upon the last occasion when this important subject was mentioned, the House concurred with her Majesty's Government in opinion that it was not desirable to have a discussion on it in the present state of the negotiations. I am quite ready, however, to give to my noble friend, and to the House, all the information which it is at present in my power to afford (Hear, hear). When the Ambassador of the Emperor of Russia left Constantinople, it appeared to her Majesty's Government that it was desirable that there should be a conference of all the great powers of Europe, in order to endeavour to arrive at terms which might put an amicable termination to the differences between Russia and the Sublime Porte. It was the opinion of Austria that it was not desirable to have any such conference while the matter remained in a state of diplomatic relations; that it would not be desirable to have such conference, unless the Emperor of Russia, by invading the Principalities, should, for a time at least, put an end to the *status quo* of Europe. When that event occurred, the Government of the Emperor of Austria, in conformity with its previous declaration, expressed its willingness to hold a conference; and at Vienna summoned the representatives of the other great powers of Europe to attend, for the purpose of conferring upon the affair of Russia and Turkey. The Minister of Russia did not attend; but the Ministers of England, France, and Prussia attended that conference. Certain terms were then agreed on, which in the opinion of the representatives of the four great powers might be accepted with honour by the Governments of Turkey and Russia. Those terms have been assented to by the Governments of England and France, and, according to our belief, have been transmitted from Vienna to St. Petersburg and to Constantinople. In this state of affairs, I think the House will feel as strongly, if not more strongly than before, that it is quite impossible for me either to say that it is desirable to have a discussion on these affairs now, or to fix a day for any discussion. As the time for the prorogation of Parliament approaches, her Majesty's Government will be ready to give every information consistent with their duty, with respect to them (Hear, hear).

Mr. DISRAELI: I wish to inquire whether her Majesty's Ministers are induced to believe that there is any particular time when answers will be returned by the Governments of Russia and Constantinople to the terms proposed?

Lord J. RUSSELL: I should not like to be responsible for naming any particular time. I do not know how many days may be required for the consideration of the terms submitted to the two Governments. I should think the proposition most probably left Vienna on Sunday last, and therefore the right hon. gentleman will be able to calculate for himself the probable lapse of time before answers will be returned.

Mr. DISRAELI, after a short interval, rose again and said:—There was a phrase in the noble Lord's answer to the noble member for Marylebone which appeared somewhat obscure on this side of the House. The noble Lord said that a proposition agreed on at the conference in Vienna had received the approbation of the Governments of France and England. I inferred at the time that that proposition had, of course, also received the approbation of the Governments of Austria and Prussia; but some misapprehension appears to exist on this point, which it would be desirable for the noble Lord to remove.

Lord J. RUSSELL: The proposition was, in fact, an Austrian proposition, though it came originally from the Government of France, and no doubt the Government of Prussia likewise assented to it.

It seems that the arrangement which had been contemplated by the Ambassadors of the four powers at Constantinople was not adopted by the Divan; and, instead of agreeing to that solution of the quarrel, the Porte published the protest against the occupation of the Principalities which is already known to our readers. On the other hand, although the Cabinet of St. Petersburg had expressed its readiness to listen to the overtures made by France and England, the Emperor Nicholas intimated that, as he had already accepted the good offices of Austria, all communications on the subject would be referred by him to Vienna. Count Buol and the diplomatic body at the Imperial Court hastened to take advantage of this position; and, accordingly, several conferences have already been held at Vienna between the Ministers of the four powers, for the purpose of giving to the proposed terms the joint authority of the leading states in Europe. The utmost union is said to have prevailed on this occasion, and all the powers have shown themselves animated by the same desire to maintain peace and to rescue the provinces of the Ottoman Empire from Russian encroachment. It is evident that a considerable advantage has been gained by this mode of conducting the negotiation; for the resistance opposed to the demands of Russia is no longer that of the Western states only, but of the whole of Europe. Vienna is, from its position, the spot where such a negotiation can be carried on with least delay; and Austria is the state which has most reason to dread the permanent occupation of the Principalities and the loss of the Lower Danube. Moreover, as she has now assumed the leading part in this transaction, she is the more bound to give it, in case of necessity, that material support which may be required to ensure its success. For the first time for many years Austria and Prussia have joined with England and France upon a question of first-rate importance, to abate the pretensions of Russia, and to re-establish with all its authority that joint action of Europe on the Eastern question which the Court of St. Petersburg has attempted to destroy.

While the representatives of England and France at St. Petersburg are instructed to put the question categorically to the Emperor, whether he will or will not withdraw his troops from the Principalities, "Russian encroachment" is evidently proceeding, and the symptoms of a permanent occupation of the Principalities, or a further invasion of the Sultan's territories, multiply. The Hospodar of Servia refuses his contingent to the Sultan's army, desiring to stand neutral; and letters from Constantinople of the 18th ult. inform us that the Hospodars of the two Principalities had instructed their agents at the Porte, "that by superior order" they were under the necessity of "breaking off for a time" all relations with the Government of the Sultan. The Post-office is in the hands of Russia; the Czar's agents conduct the censorship; and twenty commissioners, acting in the name of the Hospodar, but receiving their orders from Prince Gortschakoff, have been appointed to give full effect to all the plans of Russia. The main body of the corps of occupation is marching through Moldavia into Wallachia, and particularly to stations along the Danube over against Bulgaria.

A letter from St. Petersburg, of the 17th ult., states that a deputation of three Boyards, selected from the most influential men of Moldavia, had arrived on the previous day from Jassy. This deputation came, it is said, with the authorisation of the reigning Prince, to remonstrate against the conduct of the Russian army, which, contrary to the solemn promises made to the Porte, treats the Danubian Provinces as a conquered country, and commits therein numberless exactions.

The *Odesa Journal* reports, on the authority of letters from Ismail, that the Russians have thrown several bridges of boats across the Danube; and a letter from Jassy, in the *Gazette de Cologne*, says:—"We learn that Russian agents are at this moment extremely active in concluding bargains with the possessors of the state forests and private

individuals in the Principalities, for timber for ship-building. It is well known that the forests of Moldavia and Wallachia abound in the finest kind of timber for that purpose."

The evacuation of the Principalities is the great difficulty. The French Government declare that it will never do to allow the Russians, under any pretext whatever, to pass the winter where they now are while the combined fleets are obliged to return ingloriously to the places they respectively set out from. Hostilities, supposing them to arise, would, after the winter had passed over, be undertaken with immense disadvantage to all but Russia, as the prestige of the powers would be gone. The object of Russia is evidently to pass the winter in the provinces under pretence of negotiating—negotiating either on the terms of the notes or guarantees, or on the amount of indemnity which it has been stated Russia intends demanding for the expense of her invasion; and it would not be extraordinary if that indemnity were found to be of an amount utterly impossible for Turkey to pay, except by leaving in the hands of her invader the "material guarantee" of the Principalities, to which the Nesselrode circular made allusion.

We have already pointed out that, in defiance of all equity, and with the utmost disregard of all treaties, as of all truth, Russia invaded the territory of her neighbour, because she believed that neighbour weak; and because she was led to believe that no union existed between the maritime powers, and that Turkey would be left to her fate. The Turks contend, with some show of reason, that the mere evacuation of the territory thus violated is not sufficient, and ought not to be considered sufficient. Russia, instead of exacting an indemnity—in other words, a premium on her own injustice—should, they argue, be called upon to indemnify Turkey for the immense injury she has done to her.

The French and English Governments have agreed on the basis of a common action, and have intimated to the Russian Government that all further hesitation or delay on its part in effecting the evacuation of the Principalities will be considered by them as a refusal to do so. The answer of Russia is expected on the 12th inst. The refusal of Russia to reply, or her refusal to act conformably to what is demanded, will, it is confidently believed, be followed by the entrance of the combined fleets into the Dardanelles, and their advance to the Bosphorus. Were Turkey unsupported by the Western powers, it is almost certain that even its acceptance of the Menschikoff ultimatum would not be considered by Russia as sufficient, and that she would still require more.

The resolution of the Porte to summon the two Princes of Moldavia and Wallachia to the presence of the Sultan was adopted at a conference held on the 16th ult., of the Ambassadors of England, France, Austria, and Prussia. It is very doubtful whether this invitation will be accepted, and the Porte will then be under the necessity of superseding them. If the Princes do obey the summons, the Russians will have a pretext for making arrangements of their own for the government of the Provinces. The two Princes cannot be regarded as free agents in the presence of such an overwhelming Russian force as now occupies the Principalities.

Great apprehensions are felt at Constantinople by the friends of the Porte, relative to the state of the country, consequent upon the recent military preparations. The Turkish Government are in a state of bankruptcy, the movement of troops, &c., having been effected mostly on credit—commerce is suffering in its best interests—and a vast assemblage of scarcely disciplined troops are crying out for war. The first of these difficulties may force Turkey to adopt the only salutary course now remaining—that of a loan; the second is an unmitigated evil, whose effects will probably be severely felt for some time to come; and the third is a hypothetical danger, which, if happily averted, must produce a sufficient degree of alarm among the Christians to entail material loss for the country. It is evident that the object of Russia is either war or conquest, or such a state of armed peace as shall exhaust Turkey, and bring her to make the desired cessions of territory.

The movement of Turkish troops to different parts of the empire continues; and the expenditure appears to be of that reckless nature which shuts its eyes to the future. Several parcels of treasure coming from Persia have been taken by the Government on the way, and checks on the treasury given to the owners. The European merchants at Galatz, who have large sums due to them from the Government, have not received a single para for many months past. The troops travel by the steamers on credit, and the provisions for the army are likewise purchased on credit.

Advices from Constantinople, under date July 19, state that the Turkish Government, harassed by the conduct of Russia, and having exposed to the world the injustice of that power, has determined to act with vigour. It has hitherto allowed Russia to have all the ultimatums to herself, and has had to endure the most insulting language that ever one power presumed to address to another with even the slightest show of independence. The note repeats, but in a more precise manner, the various arguments employed in its previous communications to Russia; it shows how the Porte evinced every disposition and desire to continue on good terms with its neighbours; that it was always disposed to listen to just complaints, and to remedy them; that no distinction was made between the Christian population and Mussulman subjects; that it has very recently given proofs of its love of toleration, and of impartial justice, in the firmans it has issued, and which sufficiently secure the immunities, privileges, and rights of the Christian population of every denomination. All this the Sultan has done; but if he be required to do anything more, that is inconsistent with his own honour, and, with the honour, the dignity, and the independence of his people, he shall give the same reply he has already given to the ultimatum of Count Nesselrode, namely, a refusal; and that, if the consequence of that refusal be war, war he must accept; but he leaves it to the world to judge between them, and to pronounce its verdict as to the party that rendered necessary so terrible an alternative. The evacuation of the Principalities "as soon as possible" is demanded; and this is made in the ultimatum an indispensable condition of pacific arrangement. The note concludes by reiterating the assurance that the Sultan is ready, should negotiations be accepted, to send an Ambassador Extraordinary to St. Petersburg.

The news from the Russian and Turkish frontiers contains some interesting and important items. The armies of the two countries are almost in presence of each other; and an untoward accident, or the indiscreet precipitation of some subaltern might precipitate a war. Beginning with the Turks, the last news from Bulgaria is that 20,000 troops have been sent to Varna. Omer Pacha is in great force on the whole line of the Danube, certain parts of which he has fortified. On the 16th ult. the Russians were before the fortress of Giurgevo, on the left bank of the Danube, directly opposite Rustchuk, an important Turkish stronghold. The Russian troops marched to Giurgevo, along a road on the bank of the Danube.

Russian vessels have approached close to the mouth of the Bosphorus, and discharged their guns within sight of the forts. All the army of Turkish Roumelia has been paid, and 60,000 Turks are now posted along the Danube longing for action. Two Turkish camps have been formed near the Danube, and one near Varna. All important points have been fortified, and every vessel that is seaworthy manned. 30,000 or 40,000 men, who are collected in Constantinople, are described as stout, swarthy, well-drilled soldiers.

The vanguard of the Russian army of occupation arrived at Bucharest, under the command of Count Aurep-Elout, on the 15th. The Metropolitan, with his assistant clergy, went out to meet the Russians with the cross and holy water. Besides Prince Gortschakoff's occupation, and

the troops already so frequently mentioned, under Generals Dannenberg, Paniutin, and Lüders, the reserves and the rear-guard of the fourth corps are being concentrated at Tula, and put on the war footing. The Russians, by throwing a pontoon bridge across the Danube, between Ismail and the Island of Tachatal, have violated the treaty of Adrianople; which also stipulates that no kind of establishment, excepting the quarantines, may be formed on any of the Danubian islands.

When the Russian troops passed the Pruth, the bridges, which are private property, were found to be so weak that not more than 8000 men a day could cross. Up to the 15th above 80,000 men had entered Moldavia, that is, the whole of the 4th corps d'armée, composed of three infantry divisions (16,000 men each), of one cavalry division (4000 men), and 200 guns. Then came one infantry division, one light cavalry division, and 100 guns, all belonging to the 5th corps d'armée: ten regiments of Cossacks (of 600 men), two battalions of Sappers, and one battalion of Chasseurs. Two battalions and the Cossack artillery were to pass the Pruth on the 15th. As soon as the Russians had crossed the frontiers on the 2nd, one of Prince Gortschakoff's aides-de-camp, was sent with despatches to Herrmanstadt, in Transylvania. It is asserted that a part of the Russian troops are to encamp on the Transylvanian frontier. An extremely active correspondence is maintained between Prince Gortschakoff's head-quarters and Russia; 116 courier horses are kept prepared at each post station. A part of the Moldavian militia has been sent by order of the Russian Commander to guard the corn magazines and hospitals. The Moldavian troops are also obliged to form a treble line of pickets on the Danube. The Russian officers openly say that the Porte is far too poor to pay the enormous expenses of the Russian army, the daily outlay for provisions alone being 100,000 silver rubles (a ruble is about 2s. 7d.). The common soldiers have a strong idea that the Porte has sold the keys of the Holy Sepulchre to the Jews, and that the world will be at an end if Russia does not get them back again.

It is fully expected that the next mail will bring bad news from Belgrade, as the commander of the fortress, who insists on the Servian contingent being sent into Omer Pacha's camp, employs threats. In a note to the British Consul in Bucharest, Prince Gortschakoff promised that the Sulina mouth should at once be looked to. It was added, the express will of the Emperor was, that the commerce of the Principalities should suffer no interruption. Russian notes have also been forwarded to the Hospodars, in which it is required that the provisions for the army shall continue to be supplied at the prices paid on the day the troops first crossed the frontier. This is complained of as being most unreasonable.

From St. Petersburg we are informed of the arrival of Count Gyalai, on a mission from Austria. He is said to be the mediator who is to set matters right, and induce the Emperor to accept the proposals of the four great powers. He is stated to be most assiduous in working out his task.

The Nesselrode state papers, which the world is still looking up to with admiration, in spite of their bad logic and incorrect facts, are currently believed to be the handiwork of a certain Labinski, a Polish Jew of inferior birth and standing, but who by his facile pen has raised himself to a high position in the Chancellor's Cabinet.

Papers from St. Petersburg, up to the 23rd, bring a manifesto from the Emperor, ordering fresh levies to be called out in different proportions to the population, according to the local circumstances, varying from 6 to 10 in 1000. The Emperor of Russia has also issued orders for the Baltic fleet to be got ready for sea. The force consists of twenty ships of the line and fifteen frigates. One division is already complete, and the other will be ready to put to sea very shortly. This is the fleet which was reviewed by the Grand Duke Constantine, and by the Emperor, on the 15th instant.

A piece of intelligence, which has caused a great agitation in Sweden, is, that there is to be an immense concentration of Russian troops in Finland, which is understood to be the Czar's answer to the assembling of a powerful English fleet at Spithead. The united Swedish and Danish fleet, which is out on a so-called evolution cruise, has been ordered to the Baltic. The fleet was under the command of Admiral Crusenstolpe, and had on board Prince Oscar of Sweden, serving as Flag Captain. Great Britain is said to be in close correspondence with Denmark, with reference to all the contingencies of a war with Russia.

THE PRESENT STATE OF THE TURKISH QUESTION.

(From the Times.)

It is evident, from the tone assumed by the Government on Tuesday evening in both Houses of Parliament, and more especially by Lord Clarendon in the House of Lords, that, as we approach the final crisis of this Eastern negotiation, the confidence of her Majesty's Ministers in its successful termination does not increase. On the contrary, the conduct of the Russian authorities in the Principalities can only be regarded as a fresh proof of the indifference of the Imperial Government to the rights established by treaty in those provinces; and a power which appropriates the revenue of a foreign territory, professedly held as a temporary deposit, and in time of peace, is obnoxious to the charge of actual spoliation. What can be expected of the forbearance or justice of a state which has advanced thus far, and with such entire recklessness, on the old track of aggression and rapine? Or what confidence can be placed in the assurances of Russia, when every fresh incident that comes to our knowledge affords increased evidence of the avidity with which she fastens on her prey? It was a question whether the honour and the public interests of Europe required that the decisive resistance to Russia should be made when her armies crossed the Pruth, or whether room should still be left for further negotiation. The Cabinets of Western Europe decided—we think wisely—in favour of the latter and more temperate of these courses. The result has been, that we have obtained, to a much higher degree than we had before, the concurrence and assistance of the German States; and that all the world has seen the earnest and undeniable anxiety of the British and French Cabinets to avoid hostilities thus wantonly provoked. But, beyond this, it is impossible to go; for, in the present state of affairs in the East, it is certain that if Turkey were compelled to yield an abject submission to the demands made upon her, she would be convulsed by internal agitation even more fatal to her existence than the attack of a foreign enemy, and Russia would cease to be the aggressor only to become the protector of her victim. The nature of the case and the state of public feeling in the East determine, therefore, the extent to which concessions can be carried. Beyond a certain point they would become more dangerous than war itself; but, short of that point, there is no great reason to suppose they will induce the Emperor Nicholas to lower his demands, to withdraw his armies, and to lend himself in good faith to the pacific termination of this dispute.

Some of our contemporaries, and most of the Continental journals, have been misled by the importance attached to the negotiations going on at Constantinople, and to the intelligence brought from Turkey by the *Corradoc* and the *Chaptal*. In reality, nothing has been done at Constantinople, and we are not surprised at it; but, as we stated on Tuesday, the true seat of the negotiations is Vienna, where Austria takes the leading part in the conference. But here, again, our contemporaries are misinformed when they state that the ultimatum of the conference was despatched on the 24th or 26th of July to St. Petersburg, and that

the Emperor's answer may be known here on the 10th of August. The last proposals of the conference were not despatched from Vienna till Sunday, or perhaps even Monday last, and they were sent to Constantinople before they would reach St. Petersburg. If a direct answer is received from both Courts at Vienna with the least possible delay, the interval would be about a fortnight; but if, as is probable, a communication has to be made from Constantinople to St. Petersburg, the delay may be even longer. In the meantime, the demand of the British Government for explanations as to the extraordinary and oppressive conduct of the Russians in the Principalities will arrive at St. Petersburg almost as soon as the proposition from Vienna, and will convince the Emperor that the time is past when the mask in which he has hitherto shrouded his policy can still be worn. We have a right to insist on knowing upon what pretext these provinces, with which we have most extensive commercial relations, are thus virtually incorporated in the Russian Empire.

The internal measures of the Russian Cabinet are all of a warlike character. On the 20th of July a ukase was published raising a levy of seven men per 1000 on the population of the eastern half of the empire, which is supposed to amount to twenty-three millions. At the same time the arrears of men (three per 1000) who had been excused on the last levy are called up, so that in some districts the conscription will amount to one per cent. Some pressure has begun to be felt for money to support these enormous military preparations, and the Executive Government applied to the Minister of Finance for permission to use a portion of the gold reserve deposited in the fortresses of the Crown. But this gold is the basis of the Russian paper currency, and the Minister of Finance raised strong objections, which were not for the present overruled, to the appropriation of any part of this fund. The Emperor then applied to the Sacred Synod for a loan of sixty million rubles. That holy body expressed their readiness to obey at all risks the Imperial commands, but alleged that they were the depositories of the property of the Church for the most sacred purposes, and held their purse-strings closed with ecclesiastical tenacity. Thus far these facts undoubtedly indicate the financial weakness of the Russian Government; but, on the other hand, it must be remembered that if war were declared, especially if it resumed the cry of religious supremacy, not only would these efforts be made, but far greater sacrifices would probably be obtained from the enthusiasm of the people. Nothing, meanwhile, is neglected which can influence the ambition and national pride of the Russians, and even the language of public documents is passionate and arrogant in the extreme—at present, however, we are told, without much effect upon the people, who do not believe their church to be in any danger at all.

But the more the Emperor Nicholas assumes this tone in his own dominions, the more does he lower and contract his influence on foreign states. All his attempts to impose his policy on the Courts of Vienna and Berlin have failed; and even at the minor Courts the intrigues of the Russian diplomatists have not been more successful. Of these the most important is Denmark, because she commands the entrance of the Baltic, and undoubtedly owes a debt of gratitude to Russia for her support throughout the late Schleswig-Holstein war. But the independence of Denmark is even more closely connected with her relations to the western maritime powers, and no state is more interested in the maintenance of strict neutrality, in the event of hostilities. We discredit, therefore, the assertion that the Russian Government has succeeded in establishing its hold upon the Court of Copenhagen, and the statement that the Danish Government have proceeded, under Russian influence, to abrogate or impair the Constitution of 1849, is wholly inaccurate. The Danish Government have caused a bill or draught project to be published, containing some modifications of the Constitution now in force; but this bill is to be submitted to the discussion and vote of the Chambers when they re-assemble, and it has not been promulgated by Royal authority. To Denmark, as well as to all the adjacent parts of Europe, the present crisis is of vital importance; for, though this quarrel commenced upon the Bosphorus, the solution it may receive will determine whether or not Russia is to make the rights of foreign states subordinate to her interests or her ambition; and, since such pretensions have been manifested, the peace and independence of the world can only be preserved by the firm adherence of all other powers to the measures necessary to restore the authority of law, and to set bounds to the possibility of aggression.

MEMOIR OF THE SULTAN ABDU-L-MEDJID.

ABDU-L-MEDJID, the present Sultan of Turkey, though the mildest Sovereign of his time, has gone through one of the stormiest reigns upon record; and, at this moment, he is undergoing dangers and indignities such as Monarchs has seldom been exposed to. A sketch of his life may explain how much of his position is attributable to his personal character—how much to the circumstances of the throne he inherited.

As he ascended the throne it was tottering; and he was but sixteen years of age when, in 1839, he succeeded his father—the “reforming” Sultan Mahmoud, who attempted to assimilate the manners and the institutions of Asia with those of Europe; and who signally failed, even with regard to externals. When Abdu-l-Medjid was girded with the sword of Osman, that monarch-vassal Mehemet Ali was in open revolt: Ibrahim Pacha, having destroyed the Turkish army, was on his march through Asia Minor, on the road to Constantinople, and that Turkish Admiral, to whom, on a memorable occasion, Mr. Disraeli compared Sir Robert Peel, had just sailed with all his fleet into an Egyptian port. All the great Pachas were watching for their opportunity; had he of Egypt succeeded, the Turkish Empire would have disappeared. Lord Palmerston resolved to save it; outwitted the French diplomacy; formed the quadruple alliance, from which France was excluded; destroyed St. Jean d'Acre; checked Ibrahim Pacha; and forced Mehemet Ali to the acceptance of a treaty which re-defined his position and limited his power. The young Sultan could then have tasted repose; but was, apparently, too careless to enjoy it. An empire was in doubtful allegiance; authority, weakened at the very centre, was powerless at the extremities; and the Sultan, who lost as much as he gained by the intervention of foreign aid, and who could not place much faith in the sympathy of Russia, with whom Turkey, towards the Danube, may be said to have been at perpetual war, could have no allies and no strength but in the old Turkish Mussulman population. Yet the very first act of the Sultan, after the settlement of the Egyptian dispute, was (under the influence of Redschid Pasha) to outrage this party by recommending, with even less disguise and with more contempt, these very reforms which had risked Mahmoud's throne. This was by the famous Hatti Scheriff, of Gulhane, or Tanzimat, which among other things gave the Christians unheard-of privileges, and which sweeping away most of the powers of life and death of the Pachas, declared something like social and political equality throughout his dominions. In Europe it was erroneously supposed that this was only a reform in costume and minor matters, needlessly shocking deep-rooted prejudices among the Mussulman population; but it is now better understood, and must, undoubtedly, be recognised as one of the boldest and best measures—at least, in intention, for its application could by no means be universal—which ever emanated from the honourable ambition of a sovereign. The Hatti Scheriff reduced into subjection the Dere Beys, who, in various parts of Asia Minor (instances are mentioned in Mr. Layard's works) exercised a practically uncontrolled sway, and whose domination was of the most hurtful and

plundering character. Everywhere, as far as it was possible, and to a wonderful extent, considering the actual power and resources of the Sultan, centralisation—which is a blessing in Turkey at least—was enforced. But the consequences were not wholly causes of congratulation. The Turkish character was, in many respects changed, and not for the better. Travellers lamented, thenceforward, that hospitality was no longer met with in the distant provinces; and the reason was, that there were no more entertainers—what may be called the class of grand seigneurs, having been destroyed; the policy of the Sultan being to withdraw hereditary offices, which were the great sources of wealth and grandeur in families, and to create, if possible, what we would term here, a middle class. The other day there was an insurrection in Bosnia, where the Tanzimat had not been extended; and that was nothing more than a revolt against the feudal Lords; and though Omir Pacha suppressed the rising, he did not fail to redress the grievance. Another consequence of the Tanzimat, and one very interesting to Englishmen, was that the breed of horses in Turkey has deteriorated—no great studs being kept up; and emulation and care in improving breeds being no longer witnessed.

This Tanzimat is the key to Abdu-l-Medjid's reign: as he commenced he has gone on; and, supplementary to the Hatti Scheriff, is the firman of May, 1852, whereby perfect toleration of religious belief was declared—a grand act, if it could only have been carried out and enforced. Purity of aim, destitute of vigour, is Abdu-l-Medjid's characteristic; magnificence of declaration, without adequate means of sustaining the effort, has been the feature of the Turkish Government under both the last and the present Sultan. The complaint of the Mussulmans against him is his unwarlike nature. He abhors war; and it is this weakness of which Lord Stratford de Redcliffe—whose personal influence over him is unbounded—has taken advantage for the purpose of preserving a long peace—certainly inglorious, and probably, in the end, unfortunate, for Turkish interests. Lord Stratford de Redcliffe is himself a cautious man; and it is unquestionable that the Sultan has several times committed errors from want of proper indignation; as, for instance, when, in 1849, the Russians occupied the Principalities to suppress the “revolution” Russia had herself excited, and when the Sultan made no protest; and as, also, in the Hungarian war, when the Austrians were driven into Turkish territory by General Bem, and when, again, the Sultan did not disarm the flying but incursive force. A very different course was pursued when the Hungarians, headed by Kossuth, entered Turkey, after the desertion of Georgey. Then Lord Stratford de Redcliffe advised, and the Sultan ordered, before he would treat with them at all, that they should lay down their arms.

The conduct of the Sultan in relation to Kossuth forms, however, a very honourable, as it is a very interesting, episode in his life. There is no doubt that his noblest sympathies were aroused for the Hungarians; and that, personally, he wished them success; although he missed an opportunity which might have given him a strong future position against Russian intrigues or open attacks. The principal fact in regard to the Hungarian refugee history is this—that the Sultan, *proprio motu*, counter to the advice of his Divan, had resolved to give a shelter and protection to Kossuth, against both Austria and Russia, several days before Lord Palmerston's despatch, assuring support, to Lord Stratford de Redcliffe, was written; and all the credit of that creditable transaction, is therefore, due alone to Abdu-l-Medjid.

Another circumstance worth noting is this, that though the Sultan sent orders that the refugees should be disarmed, he, at the same time, directed Zia Pacha, to whom the orders were transmitted, to pay to them the full value of their arms; and, as an illustration of ordinary administration in Turkey, it may be mentioned that Zia Pacha, whom Kossuth has described as one of the politest men he ever met in his life, kept exactly one-half of the money forwarded for the Hungarians. Bem, and several others of the refugees, it will not be forgotten, turned Mahomedans; and this was in order to avail themselves of a law of the Koran, to which their attention was directed, that no Mohammedan could be surrendered to an Infidel; and it is an historical fact that the Divan urged on the Sultan to give up all those who would not accept the turban. The Sultan resisted this advice by another appeal to the Koran; the Koran commanded hospitality; and, though Lord Stratford de Redcliffe and other Ambassadors at Constantinople assured him that he was risking his throne, he was for the first time in his life vehement and vigorous; and, with or without English aid, he resolved to defend Kossuth and Kossuth's friends and countrymen. His conduct towards them was in every respect noble. They were treated like guests at Kutaya. Kossuth had a guard of honour when ever he rode out; and, as a splendid horse was placed at his disposal, he often galloped out of sight of his guards, and evading them, returned alone to Kutaya. He was often urged to turn these playful escapes into serious earnest; but he seemed to understand the nature of the Sultan, and trusted implicitly to his word. Nevertheless, he would have been carried off, had those of his friends who were watching European diplomacy found reason to suppose that the Sultan would give way.

The genuine generosity of the Sultan's conduct on this occasion is only to be understood by reference to his horror of war, which he was risking. Perhaps, however, the course he took is traceable to another aversion always distinguishing him—his horror of capital punishments, which, of course, would have been the Austrian sentences upon the refugees. Various anecdotes are related of this trait in the Sultan's character; but it is not always that he is able to procure mercy. It is a remarkable fact that he is the first Sultan who has not murdered his brother! Abdu-l-Aziz lives in dangerous propinquity to the throne; and just in the same way as in our own constitutional workings the heir-apparent always leads the Opposition, so Abdu-l-Aziz is regarded as the head of the old Turkish party; and it was in his name that this party conspired the other day; when, the plot being detected, and the Sultan being unable to protect his brother's adherents, fifteen Imams, Mussulman students, were bow-strung. All the tastes of the Sultan are gentle and refined; and his predilections have exposed him to the ridicule and hatred of many of his barbaric and more warlike subjects. He is devotedly fond of music; but it is a partiality without power. he has ear without execution; and after a lifetime's assiduity has only succeeded in being able to play one tune on the piano! But then it does service on all occasions: it is a march, which the Sultan plays for everybody with exhaustless complacency. It is said that when Donizetti was visiting the Sultan, and, before all the Court, performed, or had performed, varieties of music, the Sultan went up to the piano, requested the great composer's attention, and smilingly gratified Donizetti by performing this eternal march. Of the arts the Sultan is a warm and intellectual patron. Industry—in the large sense of the term—it is the great object of his reign to promote, to the discouragement of those ruinous accumulations of materials of war in which his father indulged; and it is well known with what liberal ardour he responded to the British invitation to co-operate in the Great Exhibition of 1851. The nobility of his character has been repeatedly demonstrated in regard to money. This spring his mother died; and, like all the wives of Turkish sovereigns, she had accumulated in the seraglio great treasures. She died, leaving the sum of £400,000 to her favourite, Abdu-l-Medjid; and this enormous sum the Sultan, instead of converting to his private purposes, handed over to the Treasury, for the service of the state. This indifference to money stands out in startling contrast to the manners of all around him; for it is notorious that the Sultan completely fails in checking the venality of the high officers entrusted with administration in his dominions. There are other reforms which he also fails to carry

out for instance, he cannot set the fashion in costume. It is related that, not long ago, he introduced the novelty of a small peak or rim to his fez. The true Mussulmans were aghast: the Pontiff Sheikh (ul Islam) remonstrated—such a hat was against the Koran; and the Sultan had to submit: the peak disappeared. But, next day he invited this head of religion to ride out with him; and they rode westward—straight towards the setting sun. The Sultan pointed out every object to the Sheikh: the Sheikh was courteously observant. In order to see, however, he had to put up his outstretched hand at right angles with the forehead, to shelter his eyes from the rays of the sun. The Sultan noticed this, and struck the hand of the holy man heavily with his ip. The holy man was reminded that the Koran forbade peaks to hats; the holy man was corrected, and the peak re-appeared on the Royal fez. By as successful a reading of the Koran, the Sultan has been enabled to indulge himself in his favourite wine—champagne. It is well known that his father died from drinking brandy, to which, consequently, he has a medicinal as well as orthodox aversion. His theory is that the Koran forbids fermented liquors; but that champagne is not fermented, and is, consequently, not illegal drink; and this reading has been highly applauded by the ladies of the seraglio, with whom Abdu'l-Medjid passes more time than should be spared from Government. Of a handsome person, but not of a robust constitution, he avoids martial exercises, and takes more delight in archery matches than in reviews. Gifted, however, with great perception, the Sultan has been fortunate in the choice of men to whom he has entrusted the care of the army and navy. He seeks the best men from all countries, and the result is that according to Mr. David Urquhart, who is, perhaps, more competent to speak on these questions than any man living, Turkey has nothing to fear from a campaign with Russia. The artillery has

been formed, and is directed by Prussians; the infantry by the French; and the navy has long been under the command of Englishmen—formerly of Captain Walker, now of Captain Slade, both

Black Sea might be easily destroyed, while the forts and naval arsenals of Southern Russia might be blockaded and bombarded by the ships of the combined powers.

holding that grade in the British service. The Sultan, however, does all he can to collect efficient officers and ministers from the Turks; and he yearly sends over crowds of picked young men for European culture; to Paris for the Polytechnic School; to Liverpool for commerce; to London for ship-building; to Manchester for machinery. These students are equally divided between England and France; and the fact is significant as showing that the Sultan has no predilection for one country over the other. He is neither of a French party, nor of an English party; and Lord Redcliffe's great influence over him is merely the influence of a man of commanding ability, great knowledge, and great honour. If he were a Frenchman, the Sultan would follow him with the same fidelity.

CASTLES OF THE DARDANELLES.

We append a View of the Castles of the Dardanelles. The European shore is on the left, and the Asiatic on the right. The fort and batteries on the European side are called Chelimbawri, or Kelidbahar, "the Lock of the Sea." The town and battery on the opposite side are called Chanak-Kalissi, or Sultane-Kalissi. These batteries are effectively mounted with ordnance of prodigious calibre, which threaten destruction to any ships that might approach the passage of the Dardanelles, from the Mediterranean. The Emperor Alexander used to call the Dardanelles the "key of my house," and it is unquestionably necessary to the march of Russian empire to have the right of free egress and ingress through the gates of the Dardanelles, which are the gates of the Black Sea. We cannot be surprised at the sensitiveness of Russia at the presence of a French and English fleet in the Turkish waters, when we remember that once in the Bosphorus the commerce of Russia in the



ABDU'L MEDJID, SULTAN OF TURKEY.—FROM AN ORIGINAL PAINTING IN THE POSSESSION OF THE TURKISH AMBASSADOR.



CASTLES AND FORTS OF THE DARDANELLES.

THE EMPEROR NICHOLAS.

At the present moment a review of the career of the Emperor Nicholas, rendering prominent his personal characteristics, cannot but be interesting, and may be useful:—

Nicholas, "Autocrat of all the Russias," "Czar of Poland," "Grand Prince of Finland," &c., was born in July, 1796. He was the third son of the Emperor Paul, by Paul's second wife, who was a Princess of Wirtemberg; and on both sides Nicholas is, therefore, rather more German than Russian; and as he has also espoused a German Princess (the sister of the present King of Prussia), the Russian element is infinitesimal in the blood of the present heir to the throne of the Czars. Of the education of the Emperor little has been made known; but it is certain that he had this advantage—that he was not educated as even a probable successor to his father. He was certainly brought up rather as a German than a Russian, and under the supervision of his mother—a circumstance to which is, perhaps, attributable the fact, that when he unexpectedly reached Imperial power, and when his policy was to be intensely Russian, he encountered a great impediment to Russian popularity: he could not write (it is said that he cannot to this day write) a Russian letter! Germans were his instructors; General Eamsdorf in the art of war, for which the young Prince developed taste and capacity; and the celebrated Professor Adelung and College-Counsellor Storch, who took their pupil through arduous courses of modern literature and "political science;" in the latter there being, no doubt, included instruction by Paul's Ministers in that traditional Russian system in which Nicholas has subsequently proved so profound a proficient. Music was another branch of education in which the Royal pupil made some progress, for he reached "composition;" and loyal Russians are frequently expected to admire certain "grand marches," the work of the Emperor Nicholas. The future Emperor first became known to the European Courts after the Peace of 1815. He visited England in 1816; and an immense prestige then attaching to everything Russian, and in es-

pecial to a brother, of the Emperor Alexander, he was greatly fêted in English society. He occupied a house in Stratford-street; and Mr. Raikes' "Visit to St. Petersburg, 1829-30," gives, from reminiscences, some interesting facts of the sensation then made by the magnificent Grand Duke. "He was a fine-looking youth, making a conspicuous figure at Almack's in the waltz, and whirling our English beauties round the

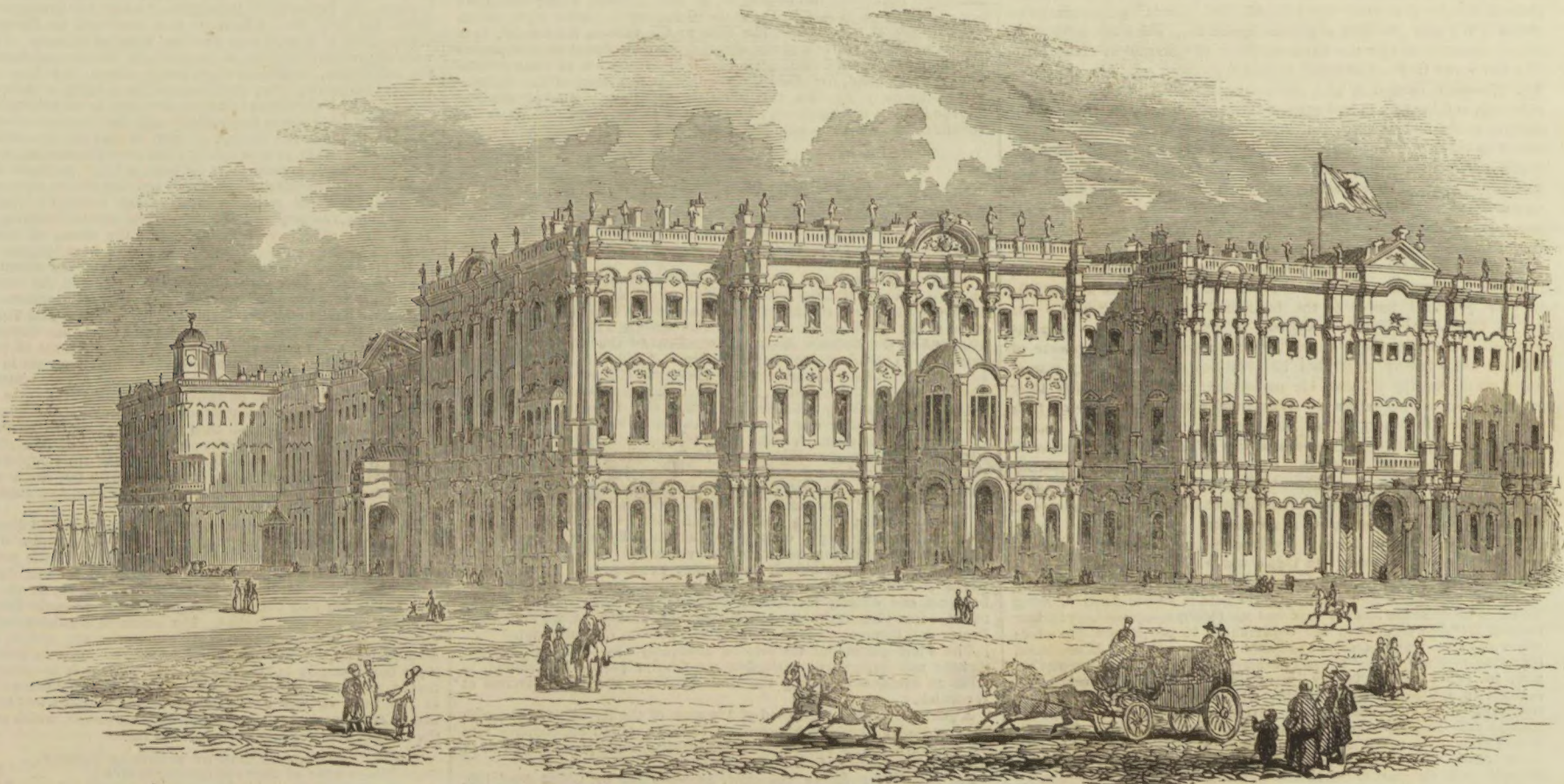
sary to enter; and we will take the facts as they were allowed to transpire to the world. Alexander died suddenly in 1825; his will, protruded to the nation, bequeathed the throne to Nicholas, alleging that the next heir, the Grand Duke Constantine, had renounced the dignity; Constantine himself confirming this declaration, and offering allegiance to his younger brother Nicholas. It

circle to a quicker movement than they had learned to practise." It is a fact in history that the waltz was only just then coming into fashion; and it is easily conceivable what aid may have been given to the new rage by the handsome and all-victorious Nicholas, whose figure Byron may have had in his indignant eye, when he wrote his satiric verses against what were then considered by large classes as the indecencies of modern dancing. At the end of 1816 he returned to Russia, and he spent the next year in diligent travelling throughout the vast dominions of his brother, making himself fully acquainted with the military, commercial, and political circumstances of each province. In 1817 he married; and the unpopularity of the marriage in Russia was in some degree diminished by the somewhat scandalous readiness with which the elected Empress consented to renounce the Lutheran for the jealous Greek church. From this marriage sprang four sons, who have received the names of Paul's four sons—viz. Alexander, Constantine, Nicholas, and Michael; and three daughters: and in nearly each case there has been a German alliance. From 1817 to 1825 Nicholas would appear to have been engaged almost exclusively in military occupations; and to his efforts mainly was his brother indebted for the maintenance of the efficiency of the Russian army. During this period his character had developed; and his boldness, and his firmness, his essentially soldierly qualities, had made him naturally popular with a savage army, and a still more savage people; and, when circumstances presented him with the opportunity, he was able to seize the Throne.

Into the secret history of his accession—into the surmises which that surprising revolution suggested—it is not necessary to enter; and we will take the facts as they were allowed to transpire to the world. Alexander died suddenly in 1825; his will, protruded to the nation, bequeathed the throne to Nicholas, alleging that the next heir, the Grand Duke Constantine, had renounced the dignity; Constantine himself confirming this declaration, and offering allegiance to his younger brother Nicholas. It



NICHOLAS, "AUTOCRAT OF ALL THE RUSSIAS."—FROM M. DEMIDOFF'S "TRAVELS IN SOUTHERN RUSSIA AND THE CRIMEA."



THE EMPEROR'S PALACE, AT ST. PETERSBURG.

was said that Alexander had died of the peculiar disease of Russian sovereigns; and no rational explanation has ever been given by Russian writers or diplomatists of the abdication of Constantine. Suffice it to say that Nicholas reached the throne, but not without such a struggle as justifies the boast that he not only inherited, but won it, and holds it by right of race and conquest. A vast conspiracy, ostensibly against both the Archdukes, broke out at St. Petersburg, when the news arrived of Alexander's death; and the circumstance demonstrated that the insurrection was wide spread, and systematically ramified throughout the empire. The personal daring of Nicholas conquered the revolt. The troops were drawn up in the great place at St. Petersburg, roaring tumultuous treason—crying "Constantine and the Constitution!"—the troops being so ignorant, that they thought, when they cried the Constitution, they cried the name of Constantine's wife! The moment was one of those in which a single man decides everything; and Nicholas was worthy of the occasion. Hearing in his palace of what was passing, he ordered an open carriage to the door, into which he stepped; and having divested himself of his sword, and of all arms whatever, he commanded to be driven to where the troops were shouting and struggling and awaiting a leader. The carriage presented itself to the eyes of the insurrectionary army; and the martial figure of the Grand Duke was observed with astonishment: he was standing upright in the carriage. He ordered the carriage to stop; and it stopped, amid dead silence. He folded his arms, and looked sternly down the line; and then, in a voice of thunder—that well-known and dreaded voice—he gave the order to pile arms. It was magic! The heroism conquered; the troops dispersed, the capital was the capital of Nicholas; and, consequently, the insurrection was over! He then behaved with great simulated zeal for Constantine; and his success was the greater and more rapid that he was not, apparently, acting for himself. He took the oath of fidelity to Constantine, and imposed the same on the troops and on the great functionaries. He seized the ring-leaders in the conspiracy, and it will be remembered that Pestal was one of these, and that he with the rest expiated his treason in the mines and dungeons of Siberia. Then there was an apparent interregnum; and various formalities were gone through, and the suspense was not terminated till December, in the year of Alexander's death, when the now Emperor Nicholas published to Russia and Europe a manifesto, in which he recited these various events, and announced that his reign had begun. At this point in his career his character changed: his new title was acquired in a bloody baptism—for blood was shed on the first day of his reign—and the scenes he had passed through seemed to affect him ever afterwards. It would be, perhaps, more correct to say, not that he changed his character, but that his old character deepened; at any rate, the gracious and affable, though daring and self-collected, Grand Duke no longer existed; and the mysterious, inflexible, reserved, Emperor Nicholas was in 1826 what he has ever been since. He took up the reins of power with a vigorous hand, and the Empire soon saw that the weak administration which characterised the latter part of the reign of Alexander was over. Nicholas had by this time, fully mastered the knowledge of the vast and complicated machinery of the Russian system; and he commenced at once his consistent career—to intensify and extend the power he had inherited, and to pursue relentlessly, at all sacrifices, the traditional objects of Russian policy both in the East and West.

The Emperor Nicholas is not a man of great intellectual capacity; and the results of his reign are not attributable to his own genius, but to the aggregate sagacity and pertinacity of the confederated diplomatists who pursue, with enthusiasm, the objects of the Russian system. The Emperor is, in fact, a man of narrow mind; excellent as a representative man, as a figure in Russia, as a personage at courts out of Russia; but precisely of that class of minds which is inevitably, though, perhaps, unconsciously, ruled by others. But this personal potency has always attached to him, that he is a fanatic, faithfully believing in his "mission"—viz., to sustain the despotic system in Europe—if there must be a choice to make Europe Cossack rather than Republican. And this tendency he indicated at once in commencing his reign; and this tendency was at once understood in the other despotic Courts of Europe. His energy was exhibited with great effect in domestic concerns. One of his first acts was to issue a commission of inquiry into the various abuses of the State; and all the revelations of this committee were acted upon with a vigour which gave the country assurances of at least an honest administrative government. But only to a certain extent has he been successful; the innate villany of the bureaucratic classes in Russia inertly but successfully resisting all the efforts of the Emperor to save his people from the peculations of his many proconsuls. Instances of his *modus operandi*, in this respect, are given by a well-informed, though very partial writer, in the last number of the *Quarterly Review*. The writer says:—"The only way by which he keeps any kind of order is by making journeys at full gallop at the risk of his neck, coming upon the officials before they have time to alter the every-day state of things—promoting the efficient, and summarily degrading the remiss. We may mention one small specimen. The Emperor had received information that the naval stores at the arsenal at Cronstadt—like the water in the fountains at Charing-cross, or 'the army' at Astley's—were carried in at a gate, entered by a clerk, taken out by a side-way, and brought in and entered again—each entry of course being charged to the treasury with the full market price of the article. Determined to catch the culprits *flagrante delicto*, the steam of the Imperial yacht was ordered to be got up forthwith—the great man in person embarked—but just as he was nearing the port, a column of smoke was seen to rise from the dockyard, and in a few minutes all evidence of guilt was destroyed by the fire, which was meant to be as useful a respondent for everything missing as the cat in Dean Swift's 'Directions to Servants.'" There is, no doubt, a good deal of truth in this, and such facts suggest that, after all, even the despotism of a Czar fails to give practical power to the individual when his authority has to be dispersed among a multitude of officials. There is great exaggeration about the "power" over persons of the Emperor of Russia; but it is very plain that his great nobles—though they cannot leave their country without his permission, and would forfeit their estates if they did not return to their country on his order—are, in a great measure, in their provinces, independent; and that, as a class—notwithstanding the systematic attempts of the Czar to impoverish them, by inducing profligacy and extravagance in their habits—they are invincible. It is also palpable—as so many sudden deaths demonstrate—that the Russian system is stronger than the Russian Czar; and that he is as much an instrument as a dictator.

Nicholas early found himself involved in wars; and the successful results confirmed his power. In 1826 a war with Persia broke out, upon well-managed provocation; and, in the end, after two years' fighting, which was prolonged with a purpose—the gold of Russia always fighting for her as much as her lead—Persia was completely conquered, her further exhaustion being secured by her undertaking to pay Russia the whole expenses of the war—namely, 18,000,000 rubles: Russia, furthermore, obtaining new territory. The next achievement of the Emperor was his war, in 1828-9, with Turkey, terminating, after many celebrated actions, in the battle of Schumla, whereby Russia obtained more territory, and vast commercial advantages—certainly to the detriment of English trade in that part of the world. For this war Russia also made the enemy pay—in all, 10,000,000 ducats. Then came the Polish revolt—the struggle, in which Nicholas himself took the part of an indefatigable general—and the "peace," which he announced to Europe "reigned at Warsaw," Poland being erased from the map by the ukase of March, 1832; and Nicholas, announcing to the deputies whom he summoned, "continue to attempt to renew this scattered nationality, and Warsaw shall be levelled with the

earth." There have been insurrections since, and the threat has not been kept; Warsaw proving convenient as a capital, whence more easily to negotiate with Europe. Then came the war with Circassia; and the Circassians remain unconquered. When first attacked by Russia they were a handful; but they have now grown into a nationality, daily increasing in strength from the junction of Cossacks; and in battles with the Circassians fall yearly thousands of Russian troops—thousands yearly replacing them with that punctuality which only despotism can command. Russian diplomacy, always active and sagacious, pushed beyond Circassia and Persia; and the English army's expedition to Kabul was understood by Russia as the response to her supposed machinations in India. England and Russia were, however, in alliance repeatedly—conspicuously in the Syrian affair, when, as the Turkish Empire was tottering, and Ibrahim Pacha, with the army of Mehmet Ali, was on his way to Constantinople, England, Russia, Austria, and Prussia (France being left out) intervened, saved the Sultan, and imposed conditions on the too-powerful Pacha, whose force and prestige Sir Charles Napier had destroyed at St. Jean d'Acre. The Emperor Nicholas, however, notwithstanding his ceaseless diplomacy at all the courts and in all the press of Europe—his constant appearance in provocations or arbitraments in Greece, in Denmark, in Germany, and in the Christian provinces of Turkey, did not assume in the eyes of Europe, that attitude of which he was ambitious until after the French Revolution of 1848. Then, at last, he could play his rôle; and, to use the laudation of a too courteous Englishman, he then faced Republicanism, and effected reaction. He saved Austria by conquering for her Hungary. The consequences and accompaniments of his masterly intervention, in that case are the news of the day; and it is not necessary to relate, in this place, the story of Russian diplomacy, in the spring and summer of this year, in the Danubian Principalities. During all this restless "foreign policy," the Emperor has nevertheless been busy at home. His administration has been pre-eminently vigorous, at all times, in all seasons, in despite of all distractions. But it is doubtful if his army is now in as complete a state as it was when he ascended the throne; and it is very questionable if the Russian Empire is at all secure from that destruction which would follow the concurrent revolt of any three of the notoriously discontented provinces. But, on the outside, all is grand and colossal; and all that severity can do is done to sustain the fabric: thousands travel yearly to Siberia.

A few personal traits of the Czar may be stated. His visit to London in 1844 made Englishmen, directly, or by report, tolerably well acquainted with his person; and it was the fashion then, and has been maintained since by the English writers on Russia, who have been of the courtly classes, and have drawn flattering pictures of the gaudy but somewhat too stern life at Peterhoff, to hold that his Imperial Majesty was the sublime of male beauty. It is certain that he is a man of vast bodily strength; and, assuredly, it is only by the force of such a physique that he is enabled to go through his vast labours, as his own Minister, and his wonderful and rapid journeys as his own spy. His English visit was a whirl; he was here only a week, yet saw everything, found time for Ascot, and to give a Cup—whence, as Mr. Disraeli has said, the great propriety of an Anglo-Russian alliance—and was gone before it was well-known that he had arrived. The rumour at the time was, that he had come to England in order to detach Queen Victoria from her too friendly relations with Louis Philippe, and that he succeeded by showing her Majesty a private correspondence which he had had with the French King, in which French designs were too carelessly confessed; and it will be remembered that the *entente cordiale* did not long survive; and there was some confirmation for the belief that a Russian alliance was henceforward to be expected, in the fact that, on his departure, the Emperor kissed her Majesty. The Emperor also kissed Wellington. Kissing is, in fact, a matter of course in Russia; and the Emperor carried his gracious custom with him, and kissed everybody. His habit of rapid movement, so surprisingly exhibited in his English tour, has often been amusingly illustrated, more particularly with regard to his Empress, who ever moves from St. Petersburg, even to Italy, but she has to calculate on the possibility of his Majesty presenting himself at any turn of the road, at any time of the day; these flying visits having sometimes been made to her by her Consort in the disguise of a common courier or soldier. De Cusine, who was merciless, admits, in his celebrated book, that, whatever the other faults of Nicholas, he was then (about 1830) an excellent husband. De Cusine's particular grievance with the Czar was that he was a bad host. At the balls at Peterhoff there are, says De Cusine, from 5000 to 7000 persons, but not one happy face. The expression of the Emperor's face is destructive of gaiety. He smiles with his mouth, not with his eyes. At these balls, it is worthy of remark that the Emperor, who would be the most Russian of the Russians, insists on both sexes wearing the Russian costume, in which even the ladies of the "Moscow party" (the Russian party, as distinguished from the German party) are uncomfortable and discontented. The Emperor would also wish only Russian books to be read, and his tariff against French literature is severe; but, despite all his despotism, the French novels go into Russia, and after all, perhaps, they suffice to counteract Siberia. Intensely, Russian as he is, however, the Emperor has made the *mot*, that men of genius are of no country; and he presses into his service, like his predecessors, all the able men whom he encounters. In fact all the great men of the Russian military and diplomatic service, with the exception of Baron Brunow, who is a Russian—but not, it will be observed, a noble—are foreigners, either in race or in religion. It is curious that Protestants chiefly command in the Russian army, and would, no doubt, lead Russian troops against the Turks in the cause of the Greek Church. The Russian Generals who subdued Hungary were Livonians and Protestants.

Of the children of the Emperor Nicholas, three have acted, or are likely to act, remarkable parts in history. His daughter, the Duchess of Leuchtenberg, who was in London the other day, is said to be one of the cleverest women in Europe, with a taste for diplomacy; and a not unnatural conclusion has been, that so accomplished a lady would not come to England merely for what the Continental papers have called "the waters of Torquay." The heir to the throne, Alexander, is a liberal-minded man, of a gentle disposition; and, should he ever possess sovereign power, he would, probably, be the occasion of some revolutions. The second, Archduke Constantine, is the head of the Moscow party—intensely Russian and intensely ambitious. Against the last Europe has a great safeguard; he is not a clever man, and he is too violent to be allowed to hold power very long.

THE IMPERIAL RUSSIAN FAMILY.

HER Imperial Highness the Grand Duchess Olga of Russia, accompanied by her Royal consort, the Crown Prince of Wurtemberg, arrived off Woolwich on Wednesday morning, at ten o'clock, in her Majesty's steam-packet *Vivid*, from Ostend.

The Crown Prince and Princess reached Antwerp, from Stuttgart, at an early hour on Monday last, and devoted the day to an inspection of the artistic treasures contained in the museums of that city; passing the night at the Hotel de St. Antoine. The Crown Prince and Princess, attended by the Russian Minister accredited to the Court of Brussels, came on to Ostend on Tuesday afternoon. At the railway station the illustrious travellers were received by his Royal Highness the Prince of Prussia, who, with his family, is at present sojourning at Ostend for the benefit of sea-bathing. The Crown Prince and Princess, accompanied their illustrious relative to the Hotel des Bains, where the Royal party dined together at seven o'clock.

Her Majesty's mail steam-packet *Vivid*, Captain Smithett (who, by the way, seems to have the monopoly of conveying to and from all the Royal personages who visit these shores), had arrived at Ostend from Dover, early on Monday morning, bringing Count Wierhorski, secretary to the Russian Legation in London, as an escort to conduct the Grand Duchess and her Royal consort to London. By a preconcerted arrangement, the illustrious travellers embarked in Ostend harbour between nine and ten o'clock on Tuesday evening, and shortly afterwards retired to rest. Captain Smithett remained in harbour until half-past one o'clock Wednesday morning, and then quietly putting to sea, accomplished the worst portion of his passage before the Crown Prince and Princess were aware they had left the Belgian coast.

The *Vivid* performed the trip so admirably that her gallant commander was compelled to slacken speed after passing Gravesend, in order to avoid anticipating the hour fixed for the Royal arrival at Woolwich.

A guard of honour, composed of 120 men of the Royal Marines, with band and colour, under the command of Colonel Jolliffe, marched into the dockyard at nine o'clock, from the Royal Arsenal Barracks, to be in attendance to receive the Royal party.

His Excellency Baron Brunow, accompanied by Count Bludolph, attached to the Russian Legation, arrived at the dockyard shortly after nine o'clock, and was received by Commodore Eden, Captain-Superintendent, and the other officers in attendance.

On the arrival of the *Vivid* alongside the wharf, his Excellency Baron

Brunow went on board and paid his respects to the Grand Duchess and her Royal consort. In a very few moments her Imperial Highness stepped ashore, amid the roar of artillery and the salutation of the guard of honour.

The Crown Prince and Princess rode in an open carriage with his Excellency Baron Brunow. The members of the Royal suite followed in two other carriages.

The Royal party drove through Greenwich and Deptford, and over Westminster-bridge to Mivart's, where the Grand Duchess and the Crown Prince purpose to remain a few days, previously to proceeding to Torquay, to join her Imperial Highness the Grand Duchess Marie of Russia.

In the course of the afternoon the Grand Duchess and her Royal Consort paid a visit to Westminster Abbey and St. Paul's Cathedral. The illustrious party drove through Chancery and other crowded thoroughfares of the City, at a time when they were almost impassable from excessive traffic. The Grand Duchess has never visited England before, and her Imperial Highness was evidently both astonished and interested with the extraordinary vastness of the metropolis.

At half-past five o'clock the Grand Duchess and the Crown Prince, accompanied by his Excellency Baron Brunow, proceeded to Buckingham Palace to have an interview with the Queen and the Prince Consort.

Lord Charles Fitzroy, Lord in Waiting to the Queen, has been appointed by her Majesty to be in attendance upon the Grand Duchess during her sojourn in England.

LITERATURE.

RUSSIAN TURKEY, OR A GREEK EMPIRE THE INEVITABLE SOLUTION OF THE EASTERN QUESTION. A Letter to Lord John Russell. By G. D. P. Saunders and Stanford, Charing-cross.—THE EASTERN QUESTION IN RELATION TO THE RESTORATION OF THE GREEK EMPIRE. By an Inquirer. Longmans.—TRAVELS IN SOUTHERN RUSSIA AND THE CRIMEA. By M. ANATOLE DE DEMIDOFF. Illustrated by RAFFET. Mitchell.

The history of the Turks seems now a completed episode in the larger history of Europe. It has had its beginning and its middle, and its certain end is not far off. Just four hundred years have elapsed since they fixed themselves in Europe, and finally extinguished the Roman Empire. After a protracted siege, and prodigies of valour on both sides, Constantinople was taken by the Turks on May 29th, 1453. Then Mahomet II. assumed the title of Emperor, and a rude tribe of men, originally the "most despised portion of the slaves of the great Khan of the Geougen," impelled and bound together chiefly by religious enthusiasm, acquired the city of Constantine, and established a great empire on the ruins of that of Rome. The Turks first became known, according to Gibbon, in the middle of the sixth century, and made themselves remarkable for their ferocity. As mercenaries, or as allies, or as an independent people, they were continually at war, and made great conquests. In common with all the nations of Asia, they suffered great vicissitudes, being in turn conquered as well as conquerors. But since their first appearance they have never been wholly absent from the page of history. In the eleventh century, after they had been subdued and converted by the Arabian successors of the Prophet, they rose into great power on the ruins of the Caiphath, and became formidable to all their neighbours, particularly the declining and disorganised empire of Constantine. Their encroachments from that time were almost incessant; and their power, with few checks, continually increased. The Grand Turk, after the conquest of Constantinople, became the terror of Western Europe, and for two centuries it seemed doubtful whether Europe were not, like Asia, to be forcibly converted to Mahomedanism. His victorious progress received its first serious check on October 7th, 1571, when the confederate fleets of Christendom—Europe being indebted for its religion and its independence to its seamen—destroyed the Turkish fleet at the great battle of Lepanto. Till then the Turks had been as powerful at sea as on land, but that victory prevented the Mediterranean from being converted into a Turkish lake. Not engaging in trade, the Turks had no mercantile marine, the surest basis of naval power; and they never retrieved that defeat. Before the end of the seventeenth century the Turkish Empire had passed its climax; and we may date its rapid decline from 1683, when its armies were, for the second time, repulsed with disgrace from the walls of Vienna. Founded on conquest, the principle of its vitality decayed when it ceased to conquer. The nations around it cultivating, to some extent, the arts of peace—improving agriculture, and extending manufactures and commerce—grew more and more powerful; while Turkey made no progress. By a process which was so general that it appears to be a necessary part of European civilisation, the many small states which prevailed in the feudal ages gradually became consolidated and incorporated into a few powerful kingdoms; while Turkey, like other Asiatic empires, was gradually dismembered by its own great vassals. It became weaker and more contracted as other European powers became stronger and were enlarged. So much was this the result of general laws, that the change in the trade to India, from passing up the Mediterranean, to passing round the Cape of Good Hope, and the discovery and peopling of America—which aggrandized Western Europe—helped to impoverish and to weaken the dominions of the Sultan. Thus it gradually came to pass, as the Western States grew into strength, that the Grand Turk—formerly the terror of each and all of them— dwindled into helpless weakness. For some years Turkey has existed as a state by the forbearance of some, the support of others, and the conflicting interests of all her neighbours.

But the more important cause of her decay is to be found in her domestic institutions. Of the religion and morality of the Turks it is only necessary to say that they are hostile to intellectual and bodily activity. Practising few arts, being still only rude soldiers, the Turks, individually, make no improvements, and leave most of the duties of civil life to their subjects. All the men of business, the merchants, the bankers, the diplomatists throughout Turkey are Greeks or Armenians. From the first the Turks have only encamped in Europe, and have always lived in it more as a garrison than as citizens. They have remained perfectly distinct in manners, in morals, and in faith, from all the industrious, wealth-creating people whom they have continued to rule as conquerors. They have despised the religion of their vassals, have treated it with abhorrence or contempt, and have only tolerated it that they might have slaves to plunder. All the increase of wealth which has taken place in Turkey, if any, is due to the industry of the Christians. They possess nearly all the wealth-creating power. Much fewer in numbers than their subjects, inferior to them in knowledge and skill, in enterprise and industry, wanting all the elements of natural increase, their old military organisation destroyed, their fanaticism cooled down, the very soul of their original greatness having expired, the Turks have utterly, and for ever, lost the means of maintaining or restoring their empire. Whatever may have been the case in antiquity, in modern times national power depends less on the sword than on the knowledge and practice of the useful arts, and the creed hostile to them must in the end be destructive of national greatness. The great change we have noticed, therefore, between the Grand Turk being the terror of Europe, and the Sultan depending for his throne on the forbearance of other powers, is less due to any scheme of policy or any ambition in other states than to their natural increase in power, and the natural decay of Turkey from continuing a rude system of oppression, and from neglecting or despising the useful arts. She has become weak from internal more than external causes; and the Turks have been subdued rather by their own vassals than by foreign states. Turkey has gone through all the phases of vigorous youth, powerful maturity, and decrepit old age. She is an example of the completed life of an Asiatic nation. From Assyria downward, with the single exception of China, the nations of Asia have successively risen to a mushroom greatness, only to perish speedily and for ever.

Though Turkey is still the subject of negotiation and dispute—for her fertile territory is coveted by her neighbours—the empire of the Turks has really come to an end. The name remains, but the power has disappeared; and the rest of Europe is really at present discussing the question, without consulting the Sultan, how Turkey is to be disposed of. Russia has long been directing her steps towards Constantinople, and is ready to absorb Turkey. Her ambition is unbounded, her bigotry extreme, her rule demoralising and impoverishing; and its extension is dreaded by all the people of Western Europe. Hence a project of allowing a Greek empire to take the place of Turkey is at present much in favour. Both the authors, the titles of whose pamphlets we have placed at the head of this article, advocate this project; and from the first-named of them we borrow the following statement, which may serve as the basis of every reasonable opinion of the

POPULATION OF EUROPEAN TURKEY.

The number of Turks at Constantinople is ..	400,000
Turks in European Turkey and the islands ..	2,600,000
Greeks at Constantinople ..	150,000
Greeks in European Turkey, the islands and coast ..	4,650,000
of Asia Minor
Slavonians, Servians, &c. ..	1,200,000

Bulgarians	3,000,000
Wallachians (Dacians)	4,000,000
Slavs (of Pindus)	600,000
Albanians (Christians)	1,600,000
Armenians (Christians) at Constantinople	250,000

There are also at Constantinople about 10,000 other Christians of all nations, and 20,000 Israelites, who, from hatred to the Christians, always side with the Turks against them.

Among the 2,600,000 Turks of the provinces, 800,000 in Bosnia are renegade Slavonians, and almost all the Turks of Epirus are renegade Albanians. The Bulgarians are not Slavonians, but of quite a different race, and the Slavonian dialect they speak is a borrowed one. Russia has among them no strength of attraction, excepting as long as she serves their interest.

Of the various people who inhabit Turkey the Greeks are by far the most numerous. They have also the advantage of professing the same creed as the majority of the others, but they are not much liked nor much trusted. Their reputation of being more cunning than courageous, is not in their favour. They are, however, a rapidly-improving people; and their vices are those of an oppressed race. They cultivate the fine arts, they value literature and science, and make great efforts to promote education: young Greeks are found as students in most of the colleges of Europe. They are energetic and industrious, skilful stamen, clever merchants, and versed in all the arts of making money. Distinguished from the earliest periods for great and versatile faculties, remarkable for the shrewdness of their intellect, they have continued to be, or have grown to be, in spite of the oppression of the Turks, a considerable people. In all the marts of Europe they carry on a great trade. Much of the activity in the Manchester market depends on the fact whether or not the Greeks are buyers. The great increase in our trade with Turkey, elsewhere mentioned, is much owing to the Greeks; and the trade is chiefly carried on by and with them. In return for our increasing exports to Turkey, large and continually-increasing quantities of corn are imported from that country and the other countries in the East of Europe. The valley of the Danube, the vast and fertile plains of New Russia—flatteringly described in M. Demidoff's book, and all the rich countries of Asia Minor, have been stimulated into agricultural activity by our demand for corn; and every week thirty or forty or more vessels arrive from the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, bringing wheat, oats, barley, beans, peas, and maize for our use. The cargoes recently brought here for the use of the French came from the East, and were most likely the property of Greek merchants. All the corn trade—with exceptions too insignificant to notice—is in the hands of the Greeks. They have planned and carried out a new system of selling cargoes on the passage, or as soon as possible after the arrival, for cost, freight, and insurance, which, though much opposed by some persons, has given a great stimulus to the corn trade. "The Greeks," says Mr. Mengedien, in a trade-circular quoted in "Russian Turkey," "created the cargo trade." We must borrow from this same gentleman a description of the enterprise and energy of the people who are rising into power as the Turks decay:—

The history, progress, and position of that small but powerful commercial phalanx, the Greek merchants, present most remarkable features. In 1820, the trade with the Levant, then of small extent, was wholly in the hands of British merchants. In that year, two or three Greek houses were established in London, with moderate capitals and humble pretensions. Their operations, though at first limited, were highly successful, and received rapid development. Other Greek establishments were formed, and gradually the whole of the trade passed away from the British houses into the hands of the Greeks, who realised rapid, and in many instances colossal fortunes. The trade, which formerly was confined chiefly to the districts to which Constantinople and Smyrna form the outlets, has now extended to the valley of the Danube, to the shores of the Black Sea, to Persia, to the vast provinces of which Aleppo and Damascus are the chief marts, to Egypt, whose powers of production and consumption have only recently been stimulated into activity—and has, through the enterprise, activity, and sagacity of the Greek merchants, penetrated into distant and semi-barbarian regions, where Manchester fabrics were before as unknown as the very name itself of England. The number of Greek firms engaged in this trade, and established in England, has increased from five in 1822, to about two hundred in 1852. The imports and exports from and to the districts, whose trade is conducted, I might almost say monopolised, by the Greeks, amounted in 1852 to a mere trifle; whereas they have now attained a magnitude which, in the scale of our dealings with foreign nations, gives that trade the third or fourth rank. A calculation has been made that the aggregate trading capital of all the Greek houses established here in 1852 could not in such have exceeded £50,000. There is now a single Greek firm whose yearly income is known to be more than fourfold that amount. Branch houses are daily being founded by the Greeks in distant countries—in North and South America and India, in Russia, &c., in order to utilise their redundant capital. It is only since 1816 that the English corn trade has attracted the attention of the Greeks. As long as the extreme fluctuations in prices incidental to the sliding scale alternately enriched and ruined foreign importers, the Greeks were far too prudent to engage in so dangerous a trade; but, when operations in foreign corn were freed by Sir H. Peel from fiscal influences, and brought within the natural conditions of legitimate commercial enterprise, the Greeks embarked with their usual energy into the trade.

As yet, however, the Greeks have no separate national existence, except in the kingdom of Greece, which is not very favourably known in Western Europe. It contains, besides the number of Greeks already mentioned as living in European Turkey, about 1,200,000 souls. The Greeks, however, constitute the whole maritime population of Turkey, and they possess in the kingdom, in all the islands, and on the coast, a large and powerful mercantile fleet. They are the most numerous and finest body of seamen in the Mediterranean, and muster upwards of 100,000. European policy, initiated by Mr. Canning, rescued this portion of the Greeks from Turkish tyranny, and established the kingdom of Greece in 1830; but the Greeks of the islands and the main land, particularly the maritime population, had before fought long and bravely for freedom; on many occasions, they have made a good stand against the Turks, but the insurrection which ended in the establishment of the kingdom of Greece, began as early as 1820. "From 1821 to 1831," says Mr. Finlay, "Greece knew no peace. Her commerce, as well as her agriculture, was destroyed, a great number of the inhabitants perished, and thousands of those who sustained life lived for weeks on nothing but wild herbs. The country was ravaged by the Turks and Egyptians. Farm buildings were destroyed, fruit trees and vineyards rooted up, and the very forests from which dwellings might have been re-constructed were burned down, lest they should afford shelter to the subdued population." From that condition Greece has emerged, in twenty years, to considerable wealth and power. The population has increased from 800,000 to 1,200,000; and agriculture, formerly much neglected, has been improved and extended. It now maintains, in comfort, a third more people than barely existed before 1830. Trade, too, is rapidly increasing, and the kingdom of Greece, if undisturbed, may become powerful, and the nucleus of a new Greek empire. It offers a means of uniting all the men of the same lineage and faith, not dwelling far apart from each other, into one community.

It must not be forgotten, however, that the Greeks never had a united national existence. They were from the first split into rival and contending tribes. They were Athenians, Spartans, Thebans, more decidedly than they were Greeks. They subdued one another in turn, or were all subdued by foreign conquerors; but they were never united as one people under one government. Divisions and dissensions continue amongst them, and the present government of Greece is chiefly preserved because it belongs to no party, and is of foreign origin. All the Greeks have a common religion, but only those who live in the kingdom have a common government, and of that, unfortunately, nobody speaks well. In spite of it, however, the people are prosperous by their own exertions. Nobody, we believe, except the members of that Government, suppose that it would serve as the rallying point for all the Greeks and all the other people who must, ere long, be liberated from their Turkish masters. To be strong, however, they must be united. Whether the principle of union be that of the federation of independent states—the principalities and the republican Montenegrins retaining their own forms of Government, and the Greeks in Turkey establishing a republic or a monarchy of their own, which might, perhaps, be the most suitable to these different populations—or whether the principle of union be a centralising Government, the obvious tendency of mankind to unite into large communities makes the independent existence of small states no longer possible. The human family has a common interest; and whether statesmen unite it or not, trade is fast connecting the whole of it in bonds of mutual interest and friendship. Accordingly, the different people now living under the Turkish rule must either attach themselves to some of the great political communities in their neighbourhood, or they must unite to form an independent, separate, and powerful political state.

It must be remembered that in Asia all the prevailing religions of the world have originated, and that in Asia religion has always been, and still is, the basis of the political system. Buddhism and Dravidism have divided the Asiatics into conflicting sects and states from the earliest ages. The government of all Mahomedan princes is expressly founded on

the religion of the prophet. More Asiatic than European, the Russians regard their Czar as also their High Priest; and the contest at present in the East is, nominally at least, between Mahomedanism and the Greek form of Christianity, more than between rival monarchs or rival political systems. To the Greeks, therefore, who have already an independent political existence, public writers and statesmen direct their attention, as likely, in conjunction with their co-religionists, to lay the foundations of a state in the East, which shall be strong enough to defend its own independence, and be neither Russian, French, nor Austrian. For foreigners, however, to prescribe their course, is to destroy their independence; they must act for themselves, and work out their own destiny. The people and the governments of Western Europe can only prevent any one power from swallowing them up. They cannot determine the future political condition of the millions who inhabit Turkey; that must be done by themselves. Though the Montenegrins venerate the Czar, though the Bulgarians and Wallachians have looked to him to protect their quasi independence against the Sultan, neither they nor the Greeks desire to be absorbed in his great and yet barbarous empire. The hope of the Greeks, founded on ancient glory, is for the establishment of an independent Greek empire. "Their church," says the writer of "Russian Turkey," "is closely allied to the Protestant Church: It refuses to acknowledge the Bishop of Rome's claim to universal authority. It has a patriarch of its own"—opposed as much to the patriarchate of the Czar as the dominion of the Pope. It repudiates purgatory, and dissents from the worship of images: all bodily representation of saints is forbidden. To support the Greeks in establishing an Eastern Empire would be equally in accordance with our religious and our political principles; and, accordingly, that is generally looked on as the best solution of the Eastern difficulties. That the empire of the Mahomedans is to be finally extinguished is as certain as any future fact can be; but what is to supply its place is yet hidden in the womb of time.

Of M. Demidoff's book it is unnecessary to say much, as we have already acknowledged by numerous quotations our obligations to the accomplished author. The English reader will nowhere else find information, at once so full and accurate, upon the statistics and internal government and condition of the Moldavian and Wallachian Principalities, as is to be found in the two handsome volumes just published by Mr. Mitchell. M. Demidoff's tour through the Crimea, and his visit to the Russian towns on the Black Sea, will also be read with great avidity at the present moment. When we state that his work is dedicated, by permission, to "his Imperial Majesty, Nicholas the First, Emperor of all the Russias," and that his tour was undertaken under the direct auspices of the Czar, we have prepared the reader to anticipate that the work is written with a strong Russian and Imperialist bias.

The day when the Empress Catherine "proudly thrust back the confines of the Russian Empire to the shores of the Black Sea," is a great epoch in Russian history. M. Demidoff's work enables us not only to trace the foundation of the commercial establishments which exist in the new provinces, with which English merchants have already established important and profitable relations, but also enables us to appreciate the price set by Russia upon its splendid conquest. In M. Demidoff's dedication to the Emperor, the commercial and strategic value of the provinces of Southern Russia are eloquently stated. The passage subjoined will be found to possess peculiar interest at the present moment:—

The southern plains soon witnessed the arrival of colonists, who gathered about a powerful rampart of cities—Nicolaiiv, Kherson, Odessa, and at a later period Berth, springing with renewed youth from the ruins of Antiochia, to command once more its two seas and the kingdom of Mithridates, once so formidable to a great people, now forming but a slight part of an immense empire.

From that period the young colonies became possessed with a creative spirit. While Nicolaiiv launched from its extemporised dockyards so large a fleet that these seas had never seen its equal, Odessa threw open its free ports, and attracted all the trade of the Mediterranean. The astonished Bosphorus imagined itself once more in the glorious times of the Genoese settlement at Kaffa. Around this nucleus of intelligent activity, placed here by civilisation, as in a favourable centre, flowed fresh streams of life and enterprise, augmented by the marvellous productivity of the soil, and the wise protection afforded to all, without distinction of race or religious worship.

But it is especially of late years, and since the glorious peace won by force of arms from Persia and the Ottoman empire, that the southern provinces, henceforward irrevocably incorporated with Russia, have felt the onward impulse imparted to their prosperity, and have risen to the stability and consistency of a great community, perfectly prepared to receive, and advantageously employ its share in the progress of the age.

The foundation of numerous and flourishing cities in the provinces composing New Russia, the progressive increase in agricultural produce of every kind, the large amount of carriage in the interior, increasing activity in the coasting trade, an appreciation of the beneficial effects of commerce among every class of inhabitants, the formidable condition of the Imperial fleet, the regularity and ease with which, in the remotest points, the springs of government are worked, and lastly—that spirit of wise and conservative progress which constitutes the true vitality of a people—such are the benefits, rapidly enumerated, which have hitherto been conferred upon New Russia, but a little while since a barbarous wilderness, overrun by hordes of lawless depredators.

SKETCHES OF RUSSIAN LIFE IN THE CAUCASUS. By a Russ many years resident amongst the various Mountain Tribes. With numerous Illustrations. Ingram, Cooke, and Co.

At this moment it would be hard to find a subject on which the public would be more willingly informed than the state of Russian society. In the recesses of its exclusive existence, Russia has grown up—not, indeed, unobserved, but uncomprehended. To the West of Europe its condition is a mystery. As the author of the "Sketches" before us rightly observes, we know hardly more of the sixty-five millions of fellow-Christians who obey the Czar, than we know of the Chinese. And yet their state concerns us rather intimately. It is not yet the half century within which Napoleon predicted that Europe would be either Republican or Cossack. In 1848, a violent effort was made to give the Republican solution to events; it failed, as we know, in the most egregious manner, and already we see that Muscovite influence, which was exerted to suppress the Hungarian insurrection, extending southwards, disregarding all the barriers of treaty and all the rights of nations, and busy in preparing a new dominion for itself in the fairest part of the Continent of Europe. What is this new element in our European community? New we may call it; for, though it has been steadily developing its power for many centuries, the silence and obscurity of barbarism, or supposed barbarism, have sheltered its movements. If the Scythians again overrun European civilisation, they will take the world nearly as much by surprise as in ancient times. But, in the meantime, we would know as much as possible of the manners and social characteristics of this mighty race. The work before us takes that part of the subject which is the most interesting. The Caucasus, and its mountaineers, have hitherto proved the greatest barriers to Russian aggrandisement, and have been the unregarded defence of the civilised world. What kind of life one leads in that region the public can see in this amusing publication. It is illustrated; and the subjects of the illustrations are the most national and peculiar that could have been chosen. Of course, there is no very elaborate or profound view of the people attempted; but very often those "Sketches," which portray men in their ordinary and mere accustomed positions, reveal the true secrets of national character, while undertaking to present only individual peculiarities. The great dominating race which has successively assimilated all the tribes of the Steppe into a common type, found in that region which extends southward to Mount Taurus, a hard and resisting generation who are not yet conquered, and who, if they can successfully withstand the persistence of Russia, will hereafter celebrate in song the glory of their defender Shamyl, that Wallace of the Caucasus. The "Sketches" before us relate to his country and to life—not, indeed, Circassian life, but "Russian life," in that region. They are very cursory, light, and "fleeing;" but they give an idea, and a vivid idea, of what they engage to convey. Zadonskoi is a true Russian; and, in order to understand him, one must begin rather far back. It seems to be a peculiarity of some savage races that they can learn the arts of civilisation without ceasing to be savage; and this is eminently the fact with respect to the Russians. Zadonskoi is what we could fancy one of the Mohicans, who had learnt all that polished intercourse can teach. The vindictiveness and desperate passions of the barbarian are combined with a cultivated and instructed head. Altogether, we are sure that the reader will find much to interest and amuse him, in this unpretending volume. And it must be his own fault if he be not instructed also. What we should almost be inclined to regret, is, that the work owes too much, so to speak, to its author. He has made it very dramatic, or very melodramatic, in passages. Our meaning will be clear to whoever reads attentively pages 192 and 193. But the same thing is manifest throughout. We do not travel to distant places to pursue our old avocations; and, although *caelum non animus mutant qui trans mare veniunt*, yet one is at first surprised not to find something a little more different from the ways of Mayfair among the mountains of Circassia.

Human nature, we know, is the same in all countries; but national manners vary; and the author would have perhaps been still more graphic and entertaining had he insisted on the latter in all his reminiscences. Nevertheless, we can honestly advise our readers to look into his pages, where they will find many curious samples of Russian character and Russian life, and a narrative which continues to be amusing, sprightly, and exciting to the very end.

THE THISTLE AND THE CEDAR OF LEBANON; by HADEEB RISK ALLAH EFFENDI, M.R.C.S., and Associate of King's College. One volume 8vo. Madden.

The volume now before us is, in every point of view, a welcome addition to our already somewhat elaborate store of Syrian travel. Nor is the work less valuable in another and equally important respect, being pervaded by a spirit of genuine and zealous, although unobtrusive, piety, which compels us to respect the man while we admire the author. To say that the book is wholly without verbal errors would be erroneous, nor was such a circumstance to be anticipated from an Oriental writer; but the occasional peculiarities of expression which it contains are so full of simplicity and character, that they fail to offend, like the slovenly style of too many of our own modern authors. Risk Allah Effendi, whose father's worldly prospects were greatly impaired by an attack upon Beyrout, in the year 1827, by a horde of Greek pirates, by whom the town was sacked and partially burnt, was the nephew and pupil of the Sheikh Faris Biridi, who was not only the chief man of his village, but also Katib, or secretary, to the Emir Beshir Shabab, Prince of Lebanon.

For a Syrian (says our author), he was deeply read, and well-skilled in the use of his pen; but, above all, "he was an earnest and devout Christian, a kind father, and a good friend: virtues which gained for him the esteem and love of all the neighbouring villagers, as well Moslems and Druses as Christians."

Under the auspices of this worthy relative Risk Allah commenced his education, and mastered his native language by a constant study of the Arabic Bible, printed in England by the Church Missionary Society; while his principles were early formed, and his mind matured by the healthy example of the Sheikh and his family.

When summoned in his tenth year to take up his permanent abode in Beyrout, under the roof of his father, Risk Allah resigned his home with the most poignant regret. But the trials of the young adventurer were only commencing. The destruction of his father's house, already alluded to, following closely upon his removal; a circumstance which rendered it necessary that even at that early age he should decide on a profession, and prepare himself for the proper fulfilment of its duties. From Beyrout he accordingly proceeded to Damascus, where he was placed under the care of a colleague of his uncle, through whose good offices he was shortly appointed to a lucrative and rising situation in the Turkish service. Two years subsequently our author was recalled to Beyrout, which had partially risen from its ruins, and became the pupil of the American Missionaries, by whom he was instructed in the European languages; and of whose zeal, piety, and kindness, he speaks with much gratitude. In 1836, having been appointed by the Government to accompany a European of distinction on a diplomatic mission through the East, Risk Allah took leave of his valuable instructors, and proceeded with his new friend to Cyprus and Asia Minor, the north of Syria, and, finally, to Palestine. His description of the country between Mersine and Tersou (or Tarshish) is graphic and poetical:—

The beauty of the plains we rode over (he says), their fertility, and variegated aspect, and the whole scenery around us, is scarcely surpassed in any part of the world that I have visited, before or since. Troops of swift gazelles and hares innumerable passed our track, as we crossed the plains of Adana; whilst the surrounding bushes abounded with partridges, quails, and such like game; the marshes and lakes were literally teeming with water-fowl—from the majestic swan, to the insignificant sand-piper and water-rail; foxes were plentiful, and so were jackalls and hyenas; and the high range of mountains that encompasses the plain on all sides, save that which faces the sea, was plentifully stocked with cheetahs, leopards, and other equally undesirable neighbours. The further we rode, the higher the elevation of the ground became, and the land was well laid out in cultivation. Finally, we reached the really picturesque and vast gardens on the outskirts of the town, where we met occasional donkey-loads of the choicest fruits and vegetables. Heaps of cucumbers and lettuces were piled up near the garden gates ready for transportation to the market, and the passer-by coolly helped themselves to some without any interference on the part of the owners or gardeners, so superabundantly does nature produce her choicest gifts.

Here is also a charming sketch of Antioch:—

In Antioch our stay was, much to our regret, comparatively short; for who would willingly quit so fair a spot—a perfect Paradise, and rich in the fairest gifts of nature? A healthy climate, a cloudless sky, luxuriant fruits and flowers, meadows, and pastures, high hills and valleys; the mountain and the plain bespangled with trees, the wild myrtle and other fragrant shrubs intersected by a glorious river; the earth producing nourishment for droves upon droves of cattle, and domestic as well as wild fowl; the river abounding in eels, and the distant sea furnishing delicious fish of fifty varieties. What more could mortal man on earth desire? All these Antioch can boast of, besides the many pleasant reminiscences connected with the spot. Its primitive Christian church, the great success that crowned the early efforts of those two devout and indefatigable apostles, Paul and Barnabas; the city, the birth-place of St. Luke, the beloved physician, whose originated the name of that faith which is our pride, our boast, and the source of all our hopes; these are ties which render Antioch, in the devout Christian's estimation, second only to Jerusalem. When we were at Antioch, many parts of the once famous walls of the city were still in perfect condition—a wonderful proof of the skill and persevering labours of those brave, but, alas, unsuccessful men, who strove permanently to plant the cross in the countries where it had first been raised, and had once triumphantly flourished. Though, through so many succeeding generations, the city has been subjected to every imaginable disaster—fire, invasion, revolt, and the terrible effects of violent earthquakes—yet nature still smiles upon the surrounding country as brightly as ever she shone in the zenith of her city's glory. Its palaces and other magnificent buildings, the handiwork of mortal man, had, with man, all crumbled away to dust. Its millions of inhabitants have dwindled down to some few thousands, and in this respect the wreck is complete; but the fairness of the morning, and the freshness of the breeze, the beauty of the prospect, the flowers, and fruits, and trees—these continue the same as in the wealthiest eras of the Seleucidæ. Man and man's triumphant domes are nowhere to be seen; a few crazily-built houses, and a few straggling inhabitants are all that now constitute the modern town of Antioch.

Enough, however, of our author as a mere traveller. The book contains much matter of serious and solid interest connected with the social and religious condition of Syria; where, as our author assures us, missionary labours could not fail to produce the most beneficial results; while, as an emigrating point, it appears to present advantages immeasurably superior to those far-off lands which at present condemn our enterprising adventurers to little short of a life-long exile, together with the horrors of months of shipboard, and the anxiety consequent upon a precarious result.

A man in London (says our author), especially if he have a wife and family to support, is comparatively a pauper if he can earn no more than £20 per annum. Take that man to Syria; plant him in any part of Lebanon, or in any other district of that country, and he has no longer pounds and shillings to mete out carefully, so as to cover the annual outlay for household expenses; but he has now to deal with piastres and paras. For one piastre he can get four ordinary penny loaves; for half a piastre he can get five eggs; for another half as much fresh butter and milk as will serve his purpose for the day; and unless he be an extraordinary eater, leave an abundant surplus. Thus, for two piastres, we have seen him provided with milk, butter, and bread—three staple commodities—and the additional luxury of fresh-laid eggs. An "oak," or 2½ lb. of mutton, would cost him about two and a half piastres. He spends a piastre in vegetables and fruit; thus the raw articles of consumption cost him daily five and a half piastres, or just one shilling sterling. With sixpence additional he can have fish, and wine, and coffee, an ample supply of each—enough, indeed, to satisfy the cravings of three moderate men; so that his annual item for food, wine, and coffee, would amount to £27 17s. (d. Of his original income of £50 per annum he would thus still have a surplus of £22 2s. 6d. His rent, and the hire of three servants, their keep included, may consume £10 of this balance; and with the remaining £12 2s. 6d., he could buy and keep a very serviceable stud, whose cost would be more than recompensed by the benefit and pleasure of horse exercise every day in the week.

Land is cheap, the climate admirable, the Syrians simple and hospitable in their habits; and as a climax to the above calculation, our author says:—

Married men, who wish to luxuriate in the enjoyments of life, but whose limited means of from £200 to £300 per annum restrict them, should emigrate to Lebanon and to Syria. There they might build themselves palaces, have parks stocked with gazelles and deer, the choicest orchards of fruit, a stable not to be surpassed by the potentates of Europe, summer-houses, and dogs, and guns, and other requisites for shooting and coursing parties; a summer residence near the sea-side, and a yacht to pleasure in.

Were it not from the knowledge that Risk Allah is a member of the Turkish Embassy, we should feel inclined to exclaim, "And wherefore, oh, Effendi! did you abandon such a home, and such a country?"



ENTRANCE TO THE BLACK SEA.—SKETCHED FROM MID-CHANNEL.

CHOTYN AND VARNA.

WE resume our Sketches of Russian and Turkish towns which, in the event of a war between the two countries, would become of importance in military and naval operations. We select for illustration this week the Russian town of Chotyń, and the Turkish fort of Varna.

Chotyń, or Choczim, called by the Russians Khotine, is a strongly fortified town of Southern Russia, in the province of Bessarabia. It is situated upon the Dniester, twenty miles south-west of Kamenietz. The population of Chotyń, which formerly amounted to 20,000, had in 1833 diminished to 1700. But the town is still an important military post, and contains a Russian garrison. Until the end of the eighteenth century it was the northernmost post of the Ottoman Empire. The town is memorable for the defeat of the Turks by the Russian army in 1739.

Varna, a port in the Black Sea—the ancient Odessus—is situated in the Turkish province of Bulgaria. The fortifications have been repaired and strengthened since the rumours of approaching hostilities with Russia. As a naval and commercial position, the possession of Varna is almost indispensable to Turkey. The bay is deep, and of great extent; the anchorage safe, and completely protected against the winds of the north and south—the most disastrous to shipping in the Black Sea. Varna has one advantage over its great rival, Odessa, in Southern Russia, that navigation is never interrupted during the severest winter. Varna is the outlet through which the pro-



FORTRESS OF CHOTYN.

ducts of the vast and fruitful territory adjoining find their way. In these provinces of European Turkey, the corn of every description cannot be surpassed in weight and nutritious qualities: the wine and fruits are excellent; and oil, tallow, hides, wax, honey, timber, and live stock of every description, are produced in abundance. The commerce of Varna with Great Britain has already increased since the repeal of the Corn-laws; and, if the Sultan would only declare Varna a free port, the inhabitants of the country around would find the market which they need for the sale of the surplus produce of their labour. Such is the fertility of the soil, and the favourable nature of the climate, that the productions of the provinces of which Varna is the natural *entrepôt*, might easily be quadrupled in a few years. The population of the rich and fertile province of Bulgaria are industrious, but they labour under cruel disadvantages in the want of roads, in the absence of which they are obliged to transport the produce of the country on the backs of mules and horses across steep mountains and rugged defiles.

The province of Bulgaria, in the centre of which Varna is situated, forming as it does the frontier of this portion of the Turkish Empire, has frequently been the theatre of war between the Turks and their neighbours—the Austrians and Russians. Having the Black Sea and the Danube for a boundary to the north and east, and being defended by a connecting chain of strong towns and forts from Varna to Widdin, nature and art have made the province of Bulgaria a position of



VARNA, ON THE BLACK SEA.



TERAPIA.—SKETCHED FROM THE ASIATIC BANK OF THE BOSPHORUS.

great strength. Widdin and Silistria are, at the present moment, garrisoned by a large Turkish army, and are capable of sustaining a siege; but the defences of Varna and the towns forming the cordon of fortresses, were so damaged and dismantled by Russian cannon in the last wars waged with the Porte, that, notwithstanding the skill of the Prussian engineers lately employed by the Sultan to repair the fortifications, it is doubtful whether they are capable of offering any effectual resistance to the large and well-appointed Russian army now collected in the Danubian Principalities, under the command of Prince Gortschakoff.

Assuming that the Russians should cross the Danube, and gain *terra firma*, the strong Turkish fortress of Shumla must first be besieged and taken before the Russians could pass the Balkan Mountains, which rise up like a vast wall, towering to the heavens, as if nature had formed an impassable barrier to defend the Eden beyond it. The passes on the Bulgarian side of the chain of the Balkan are abrupt, contracted, and difficult of ascent, and a few trees cut down would bar the passage. The Russians, however, forced the passage of the Balkan in 1829, under Field-Marshal Diebitsch, after defeating the main army of the Turks at Shumla; and it may be doubted whether the Turkish army would be strong enough to avert a similar catastrophe in 1853. Varna might be taken by the Russians on the land side; but the English and French fleets, long ere this could happen, would ride triumphant in the Black Sea, and intercept the transmission of any reinforcements and munitions of war for the use of the Russian army.

THE BOSPHORUS.

We resume our illustrations of the banks of the Bosphorus. Our first Engraving (on the preceding page) represents the Bosphorus at the entrance to the Black Sea. The view was taken about mid-channel, at the present anchorage of the Turkish fleet. The Asian shore is on the right of the landscape, and the European shore on the left. The high ground on the Asian side, crowned by a Genoese castle, is Anatoli Kawak, the termination of the Bithynian mountain chain of

Olympus. The fort on the left, called Deli Talian, is situated on a promontory formed by the projection of the Thracian chain of Mount Hæmus. On both sides of the Bosphorus, at the water's edge, are batteries pierced for heavy guns, which would open a destructive fire upon the Russian fleet should it attempt to force a passage to Con-

stantinople. The sequestered village of Terapia—a favourite resort of Franks and Greeks, and the memorable "Sultan's Valley," lying, Eden-like, fragrant and cool beneath a lofty hill crowned with a kiosk, memorable for the treaty of Unkiar Skellessi, signed there, as if in mockery, in sight of the windows of the mansions of the French and English

Ambassadors. By this treaty, concluded between Turkey and Russia in 1833, the Porte engaged herself not to allow the passage of the Dardanelles to any enemy of Russia.

Our view of Terapia is taken from the "Unur Koi," on the Asiatic side of the Bosphorus, on the northern promontory of Begkos Bay. On the extreme left is the Bay of Terapia; next to which, on the right, are the châteaux of the Greek merchants. The building a little to the right of the centre of the Engraving is the summer palace of the French Embassy, from which the tricolor-flag is flying; and behind it are the magnificent gardens belonging to the Embassy. Still further to the right is the summer palace of the English Ambassador. The view on the right is closed by some Greek houses.

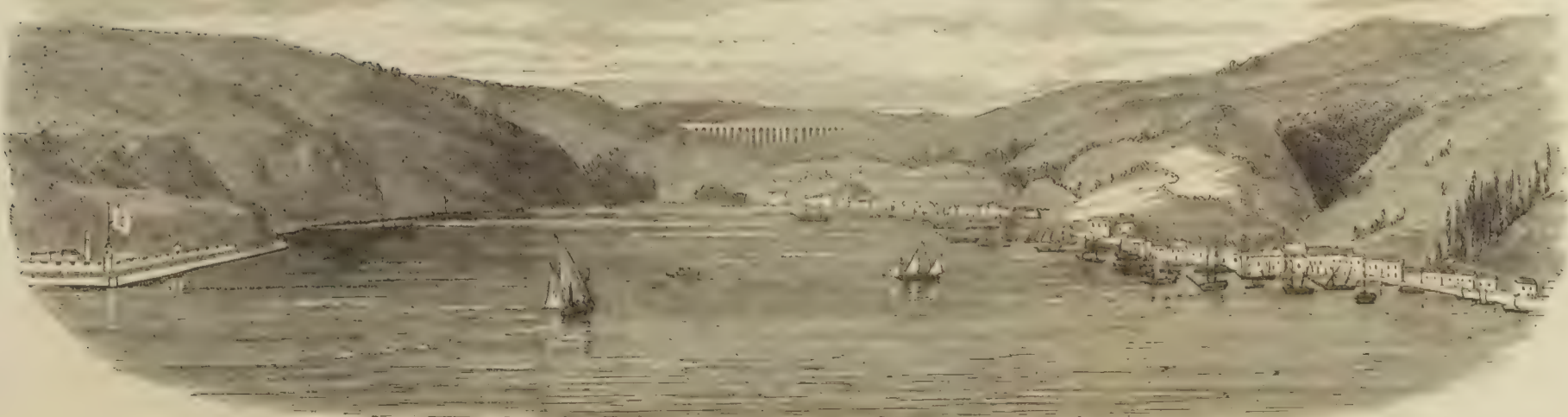
After passing Terapia, the traveller enters another silvery lake, embosomed in hills of all forms, but all graceful, covered with fairy-looking villages, among which Kandilly, the scene of Anastasius's exploits, sits pleasantly in the midst of gardens; while arabesqued, latticed palaces—retreats of the wealthy and beautiful of Constantinople—and cemeteries rich with gilding and marble, fringe the water's edge. The visitor then arrives at the castles of Anadolu-Hissar, and Roumely-Hissar, built by Mahomet II., to command the Strait, during his siege of the city; and at length casts anchor near the point of the Seraglio, in the midst of the celebrated basin called the Golden Horn. Constantinople now stands revealed in all her beauty and loveliness, and the traveller understands why the Greeks almost prefer degradation there to freedom elsewhere, and can sympathise with the anguish of the Ottoman when exiled from Stamboul.

We give a Sketch of the Gate of the Seraglio, with its charming avenue of trees. Two Turkish soldiers, in their blue uniforms and red caps, are guarding the entrance.



GATE OF THE SERAGLIO, AT CONSTANTINOPLE.

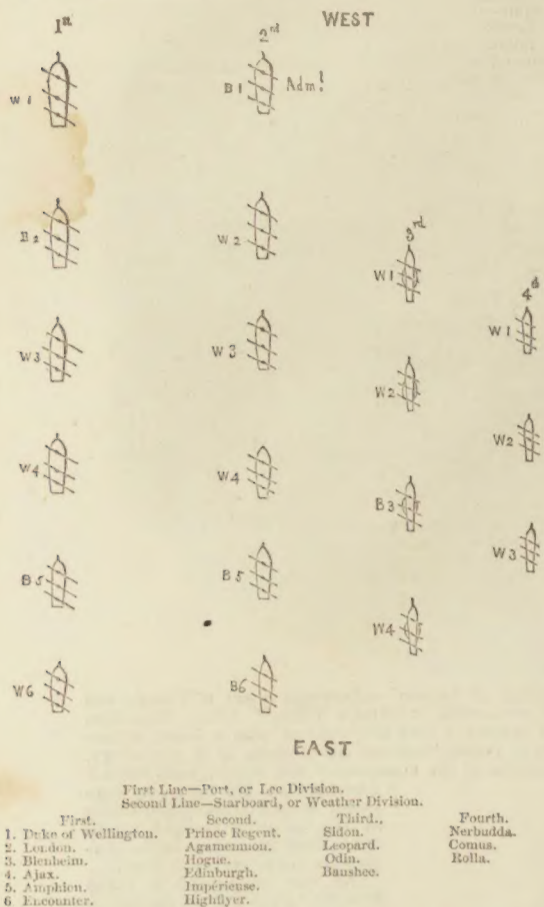
stantinople. As the traveller approaches Constantinople from the Black Sea, the Bay of Bouyouk-Déré, with its picturesque dwellings encircling the stream, and the aqueduct of Sultan Mahmoud in the distance seems to close the Strait before the traveller; till, on passing a point, he sees it stretching away to the southward, between



THE VALLEY AND BAY OF BOUYOUK-DERE.

THE LARGE PRINT OF THE BRITISH FLEET AT SPITHEAD, IN JULY, 1853,

Drawn by EDWARD DUNCAN, from Sketches made at Spithead by
OSWALD BRIERLY; and given with the present Number of the
ILLUSTRATED LONDON NEWS.



POSITIONS OF THE BRITISH FLEET AT SPITHEAD, IN JULY, 1853.

THOUGH one of the finest and most famous anchorages in the world, Spithead has not been the rendezvous of a fleet, properly speaking, since 1845, when there was assembled there the experimental squadron under the command of Rear-Admiral Hyde Parker. This fleet was probably the last of its character, consisting of sailing vessels only, with the exception of a few steamers of small size. It comprised the following eight line-of-battle ships, the finest and most efficient that any navy could then produce:—*St. Vincent*, 120, flag-ship; *Trafalgar*, 120; *Queen*, 110; *Rodney*, 92; *Albion*, 90; *Vanguard*, 84; *Superb*, 80; and *Canopus*, 84. Of these ships the *Trafalgar*, *Rodney*, and *Albion*, form part of the Mediterranean fleet, now in Besika Bay, under the orders of Vice-Admiral Dundas, and the *Queen* is at Plymouth, but expected at Spithead. The others are not now in commission. The above squadron sailed from Spithead on the 15th of July, 1845, in the presence of the Queen, Prince Albert, and many foreign Royal personages.

The formation of the present Fleet at Spithead originated in circumstances different from those that now detain it there. In the course of last year much apprehension was excited, owing to the unprotected nature of our coasts; and this was aggravated by the doubts that existed in reference to the policy that a neighbouring Government might—from ambition, or the pressure of circumstances—be induced or compelled to pursue. To so high a pitch did the excitement reach, that, to appease it, Government sent out orders for the immediate return to England of the ships then lying at Lisbon, and one or two others from the Mediterranean. At the same time vigorous efforts were commenced to form a steam navy. The screw ships already building were expedited, and launched as soon as ready, and others were laid down on the vacated slips. The *Sanspareil*, 81; the *Agamemnon*, 91; the *Duke of Wellington*, 131; the *Impérieuse*, 50; and the *St. Jean d'Acre*, 100, were successively equipped and put into commission, as also a number of screw and paddle-wheel frigates and sloops. In May, 1852, Rear-Admiral Arthur Lowry Corry had been appointed to the command of the Western Squadron, whose rendezvous was at Lisbon; but this, as already stated, was brought home, first taking up its station at Cork, and subsequently coming up to Spithead. A Channel Squadron, under the command of the same Admiral, was then formed, consisting of the *Prince Regent*, 90, Captain Frederick Hutton, flag-ship; *London*, 90, Captain George R. Mundy; *Sanspareil* (which had been reduced to 74 guns), screw-ship, Captain Sidney Colpo; *Impérieuse*, 50 gun screw-frigate, Captain Rundle B. Watson, C.B.; *Amphion*, 34, screw frigate, Captain Charles G. E. Patey; *Highflyer*, 21, screw frigate, Captain John Moore; and *Leopard*, 12, paddle-wheel steam-frigate, Captain George Giffard. This squadron moved from Spithead to Plymouth; and, on the 25th of May it sailed from the latter port on a cruise to Lisbon and Gibraltar. Just at this time, however, the dispute between Russia and Turkey assumed a serious aspect, and appeared calculated to embroil this country with the former power. The Russian Baltic Fleet, which was set down on paper in strong force and efficient equipment, also moved down the Neva from Cronstadt into the Baltic, for the reported purpose of performing some naval evolutions. The shipping and mercantile interests now took alarm at the possibility of sudden hostilities with the above power, in the event of which, and in the absence of the fleet, an incalculable amount of damage might, it was feared, have been inflicted on the commerce of the country by the sudden appearance of a hostile force off the mouths of the Thames, the Humber, and the Mersey. The *Banshee*, 2, despatch-steamer, Lieutenant Commander Hosken, which was then the only vessel of war at Spithead, was, consequently, ordered to be in readiness to sail after Admiral Corry, with orders for his immediate return to Spithead. She remained at that anchorage, however, until the 24th of June, having, in the meantime, been joined by the *Blenheim*, 60, screw steam-guard ship, Captain William H. Henderson, C.B., and the *Sidon*, 22, paddle-wheel steam frigate, Captain George Goldsmith, from Portsmouth harbour. The *Banshee* called at Plymouth, and from thence made the passage to Lisbon in three days. Admiral Corry's squadron did not arrive there, however, till the 11th of June, having made a variety of trials of sailing of a very interesting character. They entered the Tagus at one p.m. on the 11th, and prepared to moor, but before the second anchor was let go, orders were signalled by the flag-ship for the whole to prepare for sea again. This they did, and moved down to Passo d'Arcos the same night, and the following morning got under way for England—the *Leopard* taking the *Prince Regent* in tow, and the *Impérieuse* the *London*. The *Sanspareil* now parted company, and proceeded to the Mediterranean to strengthen the fleet under Vice-Admiral Dundas; but on the 16th a

melancholy and disastrous accident occurred between the *London* and *Impérieuse*, and by which an officer and six men were killed, and twelve others seriously injured. It appears that whilst the former was in tow of the latter, the *Impérieuse* stopped for the purpose of "parsing" the *London's* cable; and, going too suddenly ahead, the strain drew the "stopper bolt" from its socket, and the chain running through the hawse-hole with frightful velocity, swung round the two foremost masts. The result was the instant death of the senior Lieutenant of the *London*, Mr. Wellesley Pole Chapman (who attained to the rank of Lieutenant in June, 1842, and whose appointment to the *London* bore date December 1, 1851), together with four ordinary seamen, a gunner's mate, and a private marine; whilst, as already stated, twelve other poor fellows were most seriously wounded. To those fatally wounded death was instantaneous, and their corpses were consigned to a watery grave on the evening of the day on which the dreadful casualty happened, amid the lamentations of the officers and crew of the ship. On the 21st of June the squadron was off the Nab Light, when two ninety-gun ships were again taken in tow, as also the *Amphion* by the *Highflyer*, some of her machinery having become damaged; and the squadron came up to Spithead. In the mean time, the *Duke of Wellington*, 131, screw steam-ship, Captain Henry Byam Martin, C.B. (son of the Admiral of the fleet, Sir Thomas Byam Martin, G.C.B.), having been completed by the Dockyard authorities, had gone out of harbour to Spithead, and taken up her anchorage there on the 7th of June. The *Agamemnon*, 91, screw steam-ship, Captain Sir Thomas Maitland, C.B., had also arrived at Spithead on the 18th, from a cruise to Lisbon. The *Edinburgh*, 58, screw steam-gunnery-ship, tender to the *Excellent*, Captain Richard S. Hewlett, had likewise arrived at the same anchorage from Plymouth, as had also the *Ajax*, 58, screw steam flag-ship of Rear-Admiral Parvis, at Cork, Captain Michael Quin; the *Hogue*, 60, screw steam guard-ship, Captain William Ramsay, from Plymouth; the *Arrogant*, 46, screw steam-frigate, Captain Stephen G. Fremantle, from the Scotch Coast; the *Odin*, 16, paddle-wheel steam-frigate, Captain Francis Scott; the *Encounter*, 14, screw sloop, Captain George W. D. O'Callaghan; and the *Nerbudda*, 12, Commander Boyd—the latter en route to a foreign station.

Spithead now possessed the following fine fleet:—

Ships.	Guns.	Men.	Horse power.	Tons.
Duke of Wellington, screw	131	1100	780	3745
Agamemnon, screw	91	820	550	3074
Prince Regent	90	820	—	2613
London	90	820	—	2598
Blenheim, screw	60	500	450	1747
Hogue, screw	60	500	450	1750
Ajax, screw	58	300	450	1761
Edinburgh, screw	58	250	450	1772
Impérieuse, screw	50	586	350	2146
Amphion, screw	34	300	300	1474
Sidon, paddle	22	300	560	5328
Highflyer, screw	21	230	250	1153
Odin, paddle	16	270	560	1310
Encounter, screw	14	175	360	906
Leopard, paddle	12	240	560	1412
Comus	14	130	—	462
Nerbudda	12	125	—	445
Banshee, paddle	2	63	350	656
Total..	835	7529	6420	34,707

While the above were at Spithead, there were several others in harbour rapidly getting ready to go out: among them the *Neptune*, 120, Captain E. J. Scott, bearing the flag of Rear-Admiral Fanshawe, C.B. Superintendent of the Dockyard; the *Arrogant*, 46, screw-steam frigate, Captain Fremantle; *Vesuvius*, 6, paddle-wheel sloop, Commander Wilson; besides a number of smaller vessels, yachts, tenders, &c. On the 2nd of July the ships got under way, and took up their positions in order of battle in three lines. This was a manoeuvre of great beauty and effect. The *Duke of Wellington* was the leading ship of the larboard division, commencing from the westward; the *Prince Regent* of the starboard division; and the *Sidon* of the centre. Subsequently this was altered, the starboard and central divisions changing places; and two or three other alterations taking place. This resulted in the following disposition of the various ships:—

Larboard Division.	Centre Division.	Starboard Division.	Miscellaneous.
Duke of Wellington	Prince Regent	Sidon	Nerbudda
London	Agamemnon	Leopard	Comus
Blenheim	Hogue	Odin	
Ajax	Edinburgh	Banshee	
Amphion	Impérieuse		
Encounter	Highflyer		

The main features of this disposition have been preserved since, though some variations have taken place. The *Duke of Wellington*, *Agamemnon*, and *Blenheim* have been out on cruises; but the two first named have returned, whilst the *Comus* and the *Nerbudda* have sailed for foreign stations. The *Arrogant* has, however, gone out of harbour, and joined the fleet, and other ships are daily expected to arrive, pending an anticipated grand naval review by the Queen.

The presence of such a fleet successively gives to the anchorage an animated and attractive appearance; the majority of the inhabitants of Portsmouth and the Isle of Wight, making it an almost daily duty to inspect it from the ramparts of the garrison, in order to note its various movements and changes, whilst visitors in large numbers throng into the locality. Since it has been at Spithead the wind has two or three times blown a gale, necessitating the lowering of top-gallant masts &c.; and, on one of these occasions a very distressing accident, though it was happily unattended with loss of life, occurred on board the *Amphion*. It was on the 27th of June when the duty we have named was going forward, and the wind being very high, the iron hook of one of the top blocks broke, the block itself falling on deck and knocking down two seamen, one of whom was severely scalped, whilst the ribs of the other were broken. In another moment the broken hook, weighing upwards of fourteen pounds, fell upon Captain Patey's head, knocking him down insensible. A signal for surgical assistance was at once hoisted, and the surgeon on duty on board the *Victory*, flag-ship, was at once sent out in the *Sprightly* steamer, Master-Commanding G. Allen. Before, however, he arrived at Spithead, the surgeon of the fleet there had repaired on board the *Amphion*, notwithstanding the rough weather; and every possible assistance was given to the unfortunate sufferers. Captain Patey's estimable lady was on board at the time of the accident, and never left him till he was brought on shore the following day, and safely placed in the Royal Naval Hospital at Haslar. There he still remains, although we are happy to say he is recovering. The injuries he received, however, were so severe as to preclude the hope of his being able to resume the duties of his profession for some time to come; and another officer, Captain Astley Cooper Key, has been appointed to the *Amphion* as his successor. Another accident, attended with melancholy loss of life, occurred on the night preceding the above, being caused by the rough weather. Lieutenant F. H. Lambert, and Mr. James Muirhead, assistant surgeon—both belonging to the *Edinburgh*—were both capsized in going off to their ship; and, together with two watermen's apprentices, were drowned.

In addition to the attraction of the Fleet itself, a beautiful spectacle is presented on the passing of the Queen through it en route to Osborne or London, and on Royal birthdays, when all the ships dress out in colours, man yards, and fire a general Royal salute, producing a cannonade of a character rarely heard in time of peace.

For commercial purposes Spithead is used by the Indian and Australian merchant ships belonging to the houses of Green, Wigram, Smith, Dunbar, &c.; and also by the American liners of Baring Brothers, which embark and disembark passengers, mails, &c.: the long and oftentimes dangerous voyage round to the Thames, or from it, being thus avoided. During the prevalence of contrary winds large fleets of merchant vessels make Spithead, or the adjoining anchorage of the Motherbank, their rendezvous; and when, as will of course sometimes be the case, these magnificent anchorages are devoid of their accustomed naval and

commercial occupants, they wear to the inhabitants of the surrounding port an air of utter desolation—being, in appearance, indicative at once of the total absence of national protection, and the decay of national prosperity. The older inhabitants there remember and gossip of the times when the great fleets were forming at Spithead, that afterwards won such glorious victories, and the clouds of merchant vessels waiting for convoy to the East and West Indies, and other countries. Recollections of disaster are, however, mingled with those of victory, and the condition in which the British army, or remnant of one, returned from the Walcheren Expedition, is described with harrowing fidelity. The last departure of Nelson from England is well remembered; and the spot from which he embarked is noticed by a pedestal, which was erected by Lord Frederick Fitzclarence, G.C.H., and which is crowned by an anchor that formerly belonged to the *Victory*, Nelson's ship at Trafalgar. It stands on Southsea Beach, close to Hollingsworth's well-known Assembly Rooms and Baths, and bears the following inscription:—

Close to this spot embarked the Hero of the Nile—alas! for the last time—to take the command of the British Fleet that fought and conquered at Trafalgar, where our Nelson fell. This tribute of respect to the departed hero is placed by an humble admirer, Lord Frederick Fitzclarence, Lieutenant-Governor of Portsmouth, 1852.

The *Duke of Wellington* is, of course, the ship that has excited the largest amount of interest and attention. She presents a combination of size, power, and other qualities, possessed by no other ship in the world. Portsmouth Dockyard has equipped and sent out the largest vessels of war; but she never before sent out such a one as the *Duke*, and it appears probable that that dockyard will not be able to equip another ship that shall exceed her in tonnage. The harbour channel itself appears to have placed a limit to any further increase in the size and draught of water beyond those of the *Duke of Wellington*; when that vessel went to Spithead, having only a portion of her guns, there was barely an inch of water to spare as she passed over the bar off Southsea Castle. The utmost care had to be observed, and the nicest calculations made, to prevent any mishap occurring; and so excellent and perfect were the arrangements that not a single incident of an unsatisfactory character happened. In every department of the dockyard, almost the perfection of mechanical skill was displayed in the fitting out of this magnificent ship. In the shipwright and engineering branches, everything went right, and good fortune appeared to attend upon the vessel in every stage of her progress. She was only launched last autumn at Pembroke, and arrived round at Portsmouth in November. It will be remembered that her name was originally the *Windsor Castle*; but that this was altered to her present name, at the express wish of her Majesty. She was designed by the Navy Office, and intended to carry 120 guns, and to be of 3186 tons burden; but previous to being launched she was cut in two amidships and lengthened, so as to give her her present tonnage, and enable her to carry eleven additional guns. Being fitted with the expansive gear, her engines can work up to three times the horse-power nominally possessed by them. At her last trial at Stokes Bay they gave her a mean speed of 9.902 knots per hour; her first run, with the tide in her favour, realising 11.392 knots per hour. She has since been on a cruise to the Scilly Islands, and has proved herself a most efficient ship in every point of view. She may justly be said to be without a rival in the world. A sister ship to her is now building at Portsmouth—the *Marborough*.

Another remarkable ship in this fleet is the *Agamemnon*. She was built at Woolwich, and was also designed by the Navy Office. She carries perhaps the largest quantity of canvas of any ship in the service: under full sail she can set 10,859 yards of canvas; and on her recent trial cruise she made nearly twelve knots per hour without any assistance from her screw. In the trials of the latter she has attained nearly an average of eleven knots per hour.

The *Impérieuse* is another instance of a successful ship both as a sailing and steaming vessel, and she also was designed by the Navy Office. During the cruise of Admiral Corry's squadron, in a trial under sail, of one hour and fifty-three minutes' duration, with the wind abeam, the *Impérieuse* gained on the *London* 2175 fathoms, and on the *Highflyer* 3390 fathoms. At another run of thirty miles before the wind, she gained on the *London* 1480 fathoms, on the *Amphion* 1560, on the *Highflyer* 3225, and on the *Sanspareil* 4000 fathoms. These proportions the *Impérieuse* maintained in all the trials. She can steam eleven knots with ease.

Of the *Arrogant*, *Highflyer*, *Amphion*, and *Encounter*, it may be said that they possess certain good qualities; but, having been the pioneers in the formation of the steam navy, they cannot be expected to possess the great excellencies of the *Duke of Wellington*, the *Agamemnon*, and the *Impérieuse*.

The four screw block ships *Edinburgh*, *Blenheim*, *Ajax*, and *Hogue* are old vessels; and the first-named is the only one that has ever displayed good steaming and sailing qualities. They were built in the years 1809, 1814, and 1818, at Deptford, Rotherhithe, and Blackwall, from the designs of the Surveyors of the Navy, and were some of the first ships altered for the screw.

The flag-ship *Prince Regent* is a fine two-decker. She was built at Chatham in 1823, after the lines of the *Caledonia*, and is a razed 120-gun ship. The *London* is from the designs of Sir Richard Seppings, and was launched at Chatham in 1840.

The paddle-ships of the fleet have never much distinguished themselves. The screw propeller developing advantages of a character too positive, as compared with the paddle-wheel, to admit of the latter retaining any future prominent position in the Royal navy. The only vessel of this section of the fleet that has exhibited anything of a worthy character in the way of speed, is the smallest one, the *Banshee*—which certainly did something extraordinary in her trip to Lisbon, after Admiral Corry, when she enabled the inhabitants of that city to read the London daily papers published only two days prior to her arrival there. She was built for packet service, by Mr. Lang, the present master shipwright of Pembroke Dockyard. The *Sidon* is the ship designed by Sir Charles Napier, and which has been the object of much criticism and animadversion. It is, perhaps, however, no more than the truth to say that her faults are only those common to vessels of her character and class. Her machinery has frequently given way, but that cannot be laid to the fault of her designer.

The Fleet is provisioned and ready for sea, but an early departure is not yet expected. A grand naval review by the Queen, as already stated, is promised, and looked forward to with much interest. Several other ships are to come up to Spithead from Plymouth, Sheerness, &c. It is understood, indeed, that every ship available is to come to that anchorage for this purpose; and, if this intention be carried out, the result will be a naval demonstration of such a character as was never before exhibited in a time of peace.

PORTSMOUTH, Aug. 2.—This morning, at eight o'clock, the ships at Spithead sent up royal yards, dressed ship, and run the life-lines out, ready for manning yards, on the occasion of her Majesty's return to London. At about twenty minutes to eleven o'clock the Queen passed inside the fleet, when a grand general Royal salute was fired, with yards manned. This was participated in by the Prussian frigate and corvette, and a more splendid spectacle it was impossible to witness. The weather was brilliantly fine, and a vast multitude of people thronged the shores, attracted by the cannonade. After the firing had subsided, the cheers of the men upon the yards were heard. Rear-Admiral Fanshawe visited the Prussian Commodore Schröder on board the *Gefion*, at Spithead, this afternoon, and afterwards visited Captain Schir-macher on board the *Amazon*; he was saluted by both ships on leaving. The *Blenheim*, 60, Captain Henderson, is hourly expected to rejoin the fleet from Kingstown; the *Queen*, 116, Captain Michell, will be at Spithead to-morrow, from Plymouth; and the *Waterloo*, 120, is expected from Sheerness. The *St. Jean d'Acre*, 91, will follow speedily. This afternoon, after dinner, all the gunboats of the fleet, numbering upwards of 40 sail, were piped away, manned, and armed as for an engagement. They stretched from Fort Moncton to the Blockhouse Fort when ranged in line, and were guided by signals from the senior officer. They came off the Platform Battery, and there hoisted masts and manœuvred in the harbour channel, apparently prepared to "board" batteries; they then came out of the harbour with masts struck and ranged off the Platform Battery, and commenced a heavy general cannonade with their bow guns; this, coupled with the scaling of the great 64-pounders of Blockhouse Fort at the same time, formed a nautical spectacle we have not seen upon the like scale during the past ten years. Each boat carried a white or blue ensign, and altogether, they made a flotilla of the most formidable character. After opening fire upon the Platform Battery (apparently), the force ranged in divisions, got up masts, up sails, and made for their respective ships; the wind, however, falling light, they struck masts soon after, and pulled across the spitway to the fleet, presenting a moving marine panorama of the most pleasing and picturesque description, which was eminently enjoyed by many thousands of spectators who manned the walls of the town, among whom were a large proportion of visitors from London.

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